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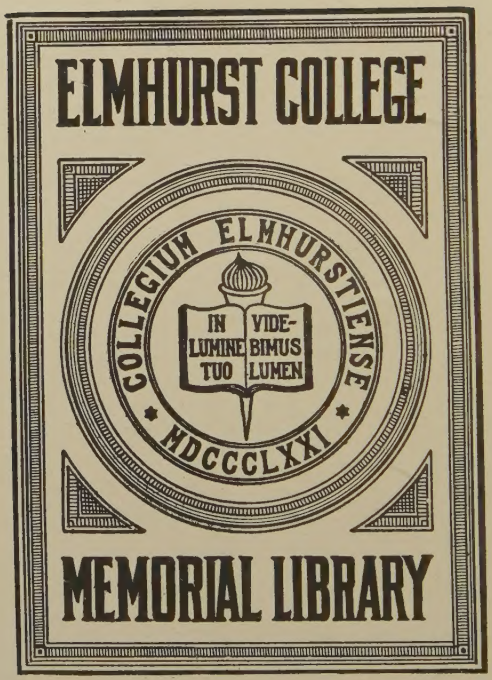
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GENERAL SHERIDAN IN CAMP

HARPER'S ENCYCLOPAEDIA OF UNITED STATES HISTORY

FROM 458 A.D. TO 1915

NEW EDITION. ENTIRELY REVISED AND ENLARGED

BASED UPON THE PLAN OF

BENSON JOHN LOSSING, LL.D.

SOMETIME EDITOR OF "THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL RECORD" AND AUTHOR OF "THE PICTORIAL FIELD-BOOK OF THE REVOLUTION" "THE PICTORIAL FIELD-BOOK OF THE WAR OF 1812" ETC.

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HARPER'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA

OF

UNITED STATES HISTORY

S.

Sabin, JOSEPH, bibliophile; born in Braunston, Northamptonshire, England, Dec. 9, 1821; received a common-school education; was apprenticed to a book-seller and publisher; and later opened a similar establishment of his own and published *The XXXIX Articles of the Church of England, with Scriptural Proofs and References.* He came to the United States in 1848 and settled in Philadelphia, Pa.; removed to New York City in 1850; and returned in 1856 to Philadelphia, where he opened a book-store. In 1861 he returned to New York City and made a specialty of collecting rare books and prints. He prepared catalogues of many valuable libraries; edited and published *The American Bibliopolist: a Literary Register and Monthly Catalogue of Old Books;* and contributed to the *American Publisher's Circular.* He also published parts of a *Dictionary of Books Relating to America from Its Discovery to the Present Time.* He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., June 5, 1881.

Sabin, LORENZO, historian; born in New Lisbon, N. H., Feb. 28, 1803; was self-educated; became prominent in the politics of his native State. In 1852 he was made a secret agent of the United States Treasury Department to look after United States commerce with the British colonies under the Ashburton treaty. He was the author of a *Life of Commodore Edward Preble; The American Loyalists, or Biographical Sketches of Adherents to the British Crown in the War of the Revolution; Report on the Principal Fisheries of the American Seas; Hundredth Anniversary of the Death of Major-General James Wolfe,* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., April 14, 1877.

Sabin Cross-roads, BATTLE AT. The Confederates made a stand at Sabine Cross-roads, La., during the Red River expedition under General Banks, in 1864. Franklin's troops moved forward, with General Lee's cavalry in the van, followed by two thin divisions under General Ransom. General Emory followed Ransom. Among his troops was a brigade of colored soldiers. Lee was ordered to attack the Confederates wherever he should find them, but not to bring on a general engagement. Franklin advanced to PLEASANT HILL (*q. v.*), where Banks joined him. Near Sabine Cross-roads, Lee found the trans-Mississippi army, fully 20,000 strong, under several Confederate leaders. Waiting for the main army to come up, Lee and Ransom were attacked (April 8) by the Confederates. At a little past noon General Banks arrived at the front and found the skirmishers hotly engaged. Orders were sent to Franklin to hurry forward, but he did not arrive in time to give needed assistance, for at 4 P.M. 8,000 infantry and 12,000 cavalry had fallen upon the Nationals along their whole line, and drove them back. Franklin, with a division under General Cameron, arrived at five o'clock, but the overwhelming number of the Confederates turned the National flank and struck their centre

heavily. This assault, like the first, was stubbornly resisted, but, finding the Confederates gaining their rear, the Nationals fell back, and were received by General Emory, who was advancing. Ransom lost ten guns and 1,000 men captured, and Lee 156 wagons filled with supplies.

Sable, Isle of. See Roche, Etienne, Marquis de L'.

Sac (properly Sauk) **and Fox Indians,** associate families of the Algonquian nation. They were seated on the Detroit River and Saginaw Bay when the French discovered them, but were driven beyond Lake Michigan by the Iroquois. Settling near Green Bay they took in the Foxes. Both the tribes were continually at war with the fiery Sioux, and were allies of the French against the latter. In the conspiracy of Pontiac (*q. v.*) the Sacs were his confederates, but the Foxes were not; and in the wars of the Revolution and 1812 they were friends of the British. They were divided into a large number of classes distinguished by totems of different animals. They remained faithful to treaties with the United States until Black Hawk (*q. v.*) made war in 1832, when Keokuk, a great warrior and diplomat, remained faithful. The Foxes proper were first known as Outagamies (English "foxes"). They were visited in their place of exile with the Sacs by the Jesuit missionary Allouez, in 1667, when they numbered 500 warriors. The missionaries could make very little impression upon them. When De Nonville made his campaign against the Five Nations, the united Sacs and Foxes joined him, as they had De la Barré in 1684, but they soon became friendly to the Iroquois and proposed to join their confederacy. In 1712 they attacked Detroit, and hostilities were carried on for almost forty years, when they joined the French in their final struggle to hold Canada. The Foxes befriended the white people in Pontiac's War. In 1867 the Sacs ceded their lands in Kansas in exchange for a tract in Indian Territory. In 1889 they took up lands in severalty and sold the remainder to the federal government. In 1909 there were 352 persons (almost all Foxes) at at the agency in Iowa; 536 (chiefly Sacs) the agency in Iowa; 536 (chiefly Sags) and Foxes (chiefly Sacs) in Kansas, a total Sac and Fox population of 975. See Fox Indians.

Sachem, among American Indian nations, the title of a chief having different powers in different tribes or families. The office was both hereditary and elective in various tribes; in some it was applied to the head chief of a group of families, each family having its own chief. In the Iroquois Confederacy there were fifty sachems in whom was vested the supreme power. They were equal in rank and authority; were distributed among the nations composing the confederacy, and were united in what was known as the council of the league, which was the body possessing the executive, legislative, and judicial authority for the entire confederacy. Among the New England Indians the highest functionaries were known as sachems, and the ones immediately subordinate to them as sagamores.

Sachse, Julius Friedrich, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 22, 1842. He is the author of *The German Pietists of Provincial Pennsylvania; Pennsylvania: The German Influence in Its Settlement and Development; The German Separatists of Pennsylvania, 1720–1800; Critical and Legendary History of the Ephrata Cloister and the Dunkers,* etc.

Sackett's Harbor. Early in July, 1812, a rumor spread that the *Oneida* had been captured by the British, and that a squadron of British vessels were on their way from Kingston to recapture the *Lord Nelson,* lying at Sackett's Harbor. General Brown, with a militia force, immediately took post at the harbor. The story was not true, but a squadron made an attack on the harbor eighteen days afterwards. The squadron, built at Kingston, consisted of the *Royal George,* 24 guns; *Prince Regent,* 22; *Earl of Moira,* 20; *Simcoe,* 12; and *Seneca,* 4, under the command of Commodore Earle, a Canadian. Earle sent word to Colonel Bellinger, in command of the militia at Sackett's Harbor, that all he wanted was the *Oneida* and the *Lord Nelson,* at the same time warning the inhabitants that in case of resistance the village would be destroyed. The *Oneida* weighed anchor and attempted to escape to the lake. She failed, and returned. She was moored just outside of Navy Point, in position to have her broadside of nine

SACKETT'S HARBOR IN 1812.

guns brought to bear upon approaching vessels. The remainder of her guns were taken out to be placed in battery on the land. An iron 32-pounder, which had been lying in the mud near the shore, and from that circumstance was called the "Old Sow," was placed in battery on a bluff with three other heavy guns; and a company of artillery had four heavy guns. With this force the Americans were prepared to receive the invaders.

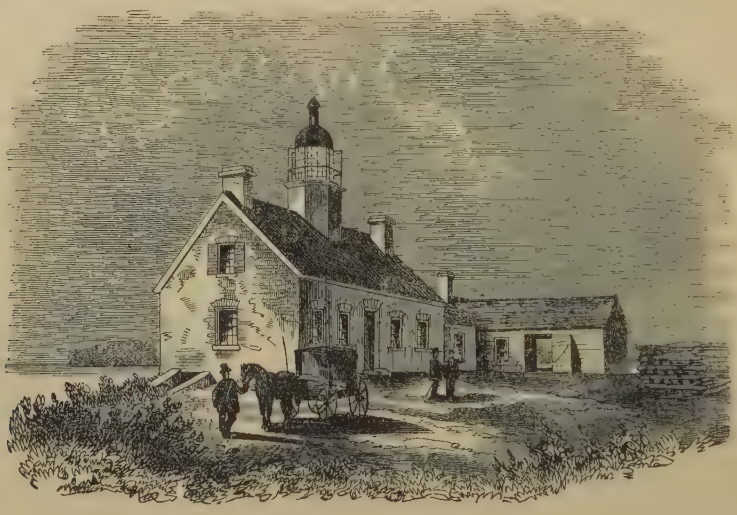
The squadron slowly entered the harbor (July 29), and when the *Royal George* and *Prince Regent* were near enough, Capt. William Vaughan, a sailing-master, in charge of the "Old Sow" and her companions, opened fire upon them, but without effect. The people on the shore plainly heard derisive laughter on board the *Royal George*. Shots came from the two British vessels, which were returned, and a brisk cannonading was kept up for about two hours, the squadron standing off and on out of the range of the smaller guns. One of the enemy's shot (a 32-pounder) came over the bluff, struck the ground, and ploughed a furrow. Sergeant Spier caught it up and ran with it to Vaughan, exclaiming, "I have been playing ball with the redcoats and have caught 'em out. See if the British can catch it back again." The *Royal George* was at that moment nearing to give a broadside. Vaughan's great gun immediately sent back the ball with such force and precision that it went crashing through the stern of the British vessel, raked her decks, sent splinters as high as her mizzen topsail,

MAP OF OPERATIONS AT SACKETT'S HARBOR IN MAY, 1813.

killed fourteen men, and wounded eighteen. The *Royal George* had already received a shot between wind and water, and been pierced by another, and she now showed a signal for retreat. The squadron put about and sailed out of the harbor, while the band on shore played "Yankee Doodle." The Americans received no injury.

When, in May, 1813, the British authorities heard of the depletion of the military force at Sackett's Harbor when Chauncey and Dearborn sailed for York, they resolved to attempt its capture. It was then the chief place of deposit for the naval and military stores of the Americans on the northern frontier, and its possession would give to the holder the command of the lake. The fall of York made the British hesitate; but when it was known that Chauncey and Dearborn had gone to the Niagara River, an armament proceeded from Kingston to assail the harbor. On the evening of May 27, word reached that place that a British squadron, under Sir James Yeo, had sailed from Kingston. Colonel Backus was in command of the troops at Sackett's Harbor. Gen. Jacob Brown was at his home, a few miles from Watertown, and he had promised to take chief command in case of invasion. He was summoned, and before the dawn of the 28th he was in Backus's camp. Thence he sent expresses in all directions to summon the militia to the field, and fired alarm guns to arouse the inhabitants.

As fast as the militia came in they were armed and sent to Horse Island, where the Sackett's Harbor light-house was erected. It was connected with the main by an isthmus covered with water of fordable depth, and there it was expected the invaders would attempt to land. At noon six British vessels and forty bateaux appeared off Sackett's Harbor, having over 1,000 land troops, under the command of Gov.-Gen. Sir George Prevost. The troops were embarked in the bateaux, but were soon ordered back, when the whole squadron went out on the open lake. The appearance of a flotilla of American gunboats approaching from the westward had alarmed Prevost. They were conveying part of a regiment from Oswego to join the garrison at Sackett's Harbor. As soon as their real weakness was discovered the squadron returned to the harbor, and on the next morning a considerable force, armed with cannon and muskets, landed on Horse Island. The militia had been withdrawn from the island, and placed behind a gravel ridge on the main. These fled almost at the first fire of the invaders.



LIGHT-HOUSE ON HORSE ISLAND.

This disgraceful conduct astonished

General Brown, and he attempted to rally the fugitives. Colonel Backus, with his regulars and Albany volunteers, was disputing the advance inch by inch, and a heavy gun at Fort Tompkins, in the front, was playing upon the British, when a dense smoke was seen rising in the rear of the Americans. The storehouses, in which an immense amount of materials had been gathered, and a ship on the stocks, had been fired by the officers in charge, under the impression, when the militia fled, that the fort would be captured. For a moment it was believed the British were the incendiaries, and the sight was disheartening; but when Brown found it was an unwise friend, he felt a relief, and redoubled his exertions to rally the militia. He succeeded, and so turned the fortunes of the day in his favor. Prevost, moving cautiously with his troops, mounted a high stump, and, with his field-glass, saw the rallying militia on his flank and rear. Believing them to be reinforcements of American regulars, he sounded a retreat, and that movement soon became a disorderly flight, as his men hurried to reach their boats, leaving their dead and wounded behind them. At noon the whole armament left the harbor, and the menaced place was saved. So, also, was the ship on the stocks; not so the stores, for half a million dollars' worth was destroyed. Sackett's Harbor was never again molested, and it remained the chief place of deposit for supplies of the army on the northern frontiers during the war. For his conduct in the defence of Sackett's Harbor, Brown was promoted brigadier-general, United States army. See BROWN, JACOB.

Sackville, GEORGE GERMAIN, VISCOUNT, military officer; born in England, Jan. 26, 1716; educated at Trinity College, Dublin; won distinction in the British army; promoted lieutenant-general in 1758; was secretary of state for the colonies during the Revolutionary War and was especially bitter against the Americans; created Viscount in February, 1782. He died Aug. 26, 1785.

Sackville, BARON LIONEL SACKVILLE SACKVILLE-WEST, diplomatist; born in England, July 19, 1827; entered the diplomatic service in 1847; was envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to the United States in 1881–88. He was one of the most popular of foreign ministers until the closing days of the Presidential campaign of 1888. On Oct. 24, a letter alleged to have been written to him by Charles F. Murchison, of Pomona, Cal., was published. In it Murchison said that he was a naturalized citizen of the United States, but of English birth, and that he wished information not only for himself but for many other citizens of English birth whose political action he desired to influence. The letter also reflected upon the conduct of the United States respecting unsettled controversies between the two countries. The British minister answered this letter, advising his correspondent to vote with the Democratic party, which, he declared, was favorable to England. The United States government at once requested of Great Britain the recall of her minister on the ground that he had abused the usual privileges of diplomatic life by interfering in the political affairs of a friendly nation. As this request was not promptly complied with the State Department sent Lord Sackville his passports on Oct. 30. In 1875 he replied to the charges made against him in Washington in *My Mission to the United States, '81–'89.* His successor was not appointed until the inauguration of the new administration. Lord Sackville openly disclaimed any intention to interfere in the political affairs of the United States, and it was widely believed that he had unwittingly fallen into a trap purposely set to influence the Presidential election. He died Sept. 3, 1908.

Saco Bay, SETTLEMENT OF. In 1616 Sir Ferdinando Gorges sent out, at his own expense, Richard Vines to make a settlement in New England. On Saco Bay he spent the winter of 1616–17, at a place called Winter Harbor. During that period the pestilence that almost depopulated the country from the Penobscot to Narraganset Bay raged there, and Vines, being a physician, attended the sick Indians with great kindness, which won their gratitude. He and his companions dwelt and slept among the sick in their cabins, but were never touched by the pestilential fever. He made the whole coast a more hospitable place for Englishmen afterwards. He restrained traders from debauching the Indians with rum, and he

was the first Englishman who described the White Mountains, for he went to the source of the Saco River in a canoe. In 1630 the Plymouth Company gave Richard Vines and John Oldham each a tract of land on the Saco River, 4 miles wide on the sea, and extending 8 miles inland.

Sacramento, city and capital of Sacramento county and of the State of California; at the junction of the American and Sacramento rivers; 96 miles n. e. of San Francisco. It is the commercial centre of a rich agricultural region, especially adapted to grape and orange culture, and its geographical position and transportation facilities enable it to command the trade of the northern half of the State.

In 1839 Captain JOHN A. SUTTER (*q. v.*) established a fort, now included within the city limits, but the city was not laid out until 1848, after the discovery of gold. The thousands of gold-seekers who arrived in the country came up the river to Sacramento in steamers and sailing-vessels, and from that point proceeded by land to the mines. A canvas town was at first established on the river-bank, and soon substantial buildings were erected. In 1849 the high waters overflowed the city, and levees were made. These, however, proved insufficient in the winter of 1861–62, when they were broken in the great flood and the city was again inundated. On Nov. 2, 1852, most of the business portion was burned, and again on July 13, 1854, a great fire swept over the same ground and destroyed all that had been rebuilt. The first railroad in California, extending from Sacramento into El Dorado county, was opened Feb. 22, 1856; work on the Central Pacific Railroad was begun here, Jan. 8, 1863; the State Capitol, cost $2,000,000, was finished in 1869; and the State capital permanently located here, Feb. 25, 1854. The city was incorporated by the first legislature, Feb. 27, 1850; on April 24, 1858, the governments of the city and county were consolidated; and on April 25, 1863, the city was re-incorporated. Pop. (1900), 29,282; (1910) 44,696.

Sacramento, BATTLE OF THE. After the battle of BRACETI (*q. v.*), Col. Alexander W. Doniphan entered El Paso without opposition, and sent a messenger to hurry up artillery which he had sent for to Santa Fé. It arrived on Feb. 1, 1847, and on the 11th he set out for Chihuahua in search of General Wool. After marching 145 miles he learned that Wool was not at Chihuahua. He pressed forward, however, and halted near the Sacramento River, about 18 miles from the city of Chihuahua, in the State of the same name. There he was confronted (Feb. 28) by about 4,000 Mexican cavalry, infantry, and artillery. After a contest of about three hours the Mexicans were routed by the men under Doniphan. Twelve of their cannon were captured, with ammunition and other munitions of war. The loss of the Mexicans was about 600 men; of the Americans, eighteen. Doniphan then pressed forward and entered Chihuahua, a city of 40,000 inhabitants, without opposition, and planted the American flag upon its citadel. He took formal possession of the province in the name of the United States. After resting there six weeks Doniphan pushed forward and joined Wool at Saltillo (May 22d). See MEXICO, WAR WITH.

Safe Conduct, a protection granted by authority to persons travelling in an enemy's or in a foreign country to secure them against molestation. These special safe conducts have in modern times been mostly superseded by the PASSPORT (*q. v.*) system.

Safety Fund, an early attempt at reformation of the banking system. The New York State legislature passed an act in 1829 compelling all State banks to deposit a portion of their capital stock in the State treasury to form a fund from which liabilities of the banks could be paid. See BANKS, GUARANTEED.

Safford, JAMES MERRILL, geologist; born in Putnam (now Zanesville), O., Aug. 13, 1822; graduated at the Ohio State University in 1844; professor of natural science in Cumberland University, Lebanon, Tenn., in 1848–72; during which time (1854–60) he was State geologist of Tennessee; professor of chemistry in the medical department of the University of Nashville and Vanderbilt University in 1874–94; and for more than thirty years was a member of the State board of health. He was author of *Geology Reconnoissance of Tennessee; Geology of Tennessee; Elements of the Geology of*

Tennessee, and many papers on geological subjects. He died in 1907.

Safford, William Harrison, lawyer; born in Parkersburg, Va., Feb. 19, 1821; was educated at Asbury Academy, Parkersburg, Va.; admitted to the bar in 1842; began practice in Chillicothe, O., in 1848; served in the State Senate in 1858–60; and was judge of the second sub-division of the fifth judicial circuit of Ohio in 1868–74. He was author of *Life of Blennerhassett* and *The Blennerhassett Papers*.

Sag Harbor, Expedition to. Early in 1777 the British gathered much forage at Sag Harbor, at the eastern end of Long Island, protected by an armed schooner and a company of infantry. General Parsons, in command in Connecticut, sent Lieutenant-Colonel Meigs with 170 men in thirty whale-boats to capture or destroy their forage. They landed near Southold, carried their boats across to a bay, about 15 miles, and, re-embarking, landed before daylight about 4 miles from Sag Harbor. They took the place by surprise, May 25th, killing six men and capturing ninety. They burned the forage and twelve vessels, and returned without the loss of a man.

Sage, Henry William, philanthropist; born in Middletown, Conn., Jan. 31, 1814; acquired a large fortune in the lumber trade, and will be remembered best for his benefactions to Cornell University. He was elected one of the trustees in 1870, and from 1875 till his death was president of the board. His gifts to Cornell include the Sage College for Women, cost $266,000; the Sage School of Philosophy, $200,000; University Library Building, $260,000; and endowment, $300,000; the Susan E. Linn Sage chair of philosophy and home for the Sage professors of philosophy, $61,000; the Sage Chapel; and the Museum of Classical Archæology. His various gifts aggregated about $1,250,000 in value. He died in Ithaca, N. Y., Sept. 17, 1897. After his death his sons, Dean Sage, of Albany, and William H. Sage, of Ithaca, presented the university, for a students' hospital, the Sage mansion, valued at $80,000, a full equipment, and an endowment of $100,000.

Sage, Russell, capitalist; born in Shenandoah, N. Y., Aug. 4, 1816; received a public-school education; and till 1857 was engaged in mercantile pursuits in Troy. He was elected alderman in 1841 and 1848; served as treasurer of Rensselaer county for seven years; was in Congress as a Whig in 1853–57; later became interested in railroads; removed to New York City in 1863 and engaged in business in Wall Street; and for many years was closely connected with the affairs of the Union Pacific Railroad. On Dec. 4, 1891, a man named Norcross obtained access to Mr. Sage's office, secured an interview with the millionaire, demanded from him $1,200,000 in cash, and, on Mr. Sage's refusal to pay the money, pulled a small dynamite bomb from a satchel in his hand and dashed it on the floor. The explosion that followed killed Norcross, seriously injured Mr. Sage, wounded a clerk so severely that he died soon afterwards, and partially wrecked the building. At the time of the outrage William R. Laidlaw, Jr., a clerk for a banking firm, was in Mr. Sage's office. He claimed that Mr. Sage seized him and held him as a shield for his own person, with the result that Laidlaw was also severely injured. Soon afterwards he began suit against Mr. Sage for $50,000. This suit was brought to trial four times; Laidlaw obtained verdict twice, for $25,000 and $43,000; each time the verdict was reversed; and after ten years' litigation Laidlaw was compelled, for want of funds, to discontinue it. He died in poverty in New York City, Aug. 7, 1911. Mr. Sage died in Lawrence Beach, N. Y., July 21, 1906.

His widow, Margaret Olivia Slocum Sage, born in Syracuse, N. Y., Sept. 8, 1828, spent several years in teaching, married Mr. Sage in 1869, and soon after his death began making large gifts for charitable purposes, disposing of $16,000,000 within three years. Her largest benefactions were $10,000,000 to the Sage Foundation, for improving social and living conditions throughout the United States, and $1,000,000 each to the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute and the Emma Willard School, both at Troy, N. Y.

Sage Foundation. On March 12, 1907, Mrs. Russell Sage of New York announced that she had set aside the sum of $10,000,000 to be known as the Sage Foun-

dation and to be devoted to the improvement of the social and living conditions throughout the United States. Following is a part of the statement given out by Mrs. Sage as to the object of the gift: "I have set aside $10,000,000 for the endowment of this foundation. Its object is the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States. The means to that end will include research, publication, education, the establishment and maintenance of charitable and beneficial activities, agencies, and institutions, and the aid of any such activities, agencies, and institutions already established."

Sahaptin Indians. This is one of the nine Columbian families in the States of Oregon and Washington. Their country extends from the Dalles of the Columbia River to the Bitter Root Mountains on both sides of the Columbia, and on the forks of the Lewis and the Snake and Sahaptin rivers. The nation includes the NEZ PERCES (*q. v.*) or Sahaptins proper, the Walla Wallas, and others of less importance. They are of medium stature; the men are brave and muscular, and dignified in appearance; the women plump and generally handsome; and some of the tribes, especially the Nez Percés, are neat in their personal appearance. With the exception of the latter, none of the Sahaptin nation has figured in the history of the republic.

Sailor's Creek, a small tributary of the Appomattox River in Virginia, the scene of an engagement on April 6, 1865, between Sheridan's cavalry and the 2d and 6th Corps of the Army of the Potomac and the Confederates of the Army of Northern Virginia under Generals Ewell, Anderson, Pickett, and Bushrod Johnson. Ewell's corps was captured and the divisions of Anderson, Pickett, and Johnson almost broken up, about 10,000 men in all being captured. This action is variously known as the battle of Sailor's Creek, Harper's Farm, and Deatonsville.

Sailor's Snug Harbor, a retreat for "aged, decrepit, and worn-out sailors," on Staten Island, N. Y., provided by the will of ROBERT RICHARD RANDALL (*q. v.*). The grounds originally comprised 130 acres, and the first building was erected in 1831. Subsequently, the grounds were enlarged to 180 acres and the buildings to about forty, including eight dormitories capable of accommodating 1,000 persons, a hospital, church, and residences for the officers. The Harbor is an object of much interest to every one, and has a host of visitors; but in a financial sense its endowment possesses an extraordinary interest. The Minto farm in the fifteenth ward of New York City and the four lots in the first ward that cost the founder $10,000 in 1790 represented in 1912 a value of over $20,000,000. The farm property lies between Eighth and Tenth streets and Fifth Avenue and the Bowery, and all is under very profitable lease; in fact, the income, under long-existing adverse conditions, is much more than sufficient to care for all applicants that come under the founder's will. The trustees are the mayor of the city, president of the Chamber of Commerce, president and vice-president of the Marine Society, and the senior ministers of the Protestant Episcopal and Presbyterian Churches. Captain Randall had no conception of the possibility of a vast increase in the value of the old farm property and made no provision in his will for its management under twentieth-century conditions. Hence, while the trustees realize that the majority of the buildings on the property are more or less dilapidated and wholly unfit for modern business uses, they are not free to improve the property suitably. President A. Barton Hepburn, of the Chamber of Commerce, stated the perplexity of the trustees as follows: "To act in accordance with ordinary business judgment, the trustees should improve the estate that has changed from being an orchard to being one of the most noteworthy real-estate tracts in the very heart of Manhattan. We should mortgage part of the property for enough to erect up-to-date structures to replace buildings now ready almost to tumble down. This would seem to be common sense. But are the trustees entitled to use common sense, according to the will? We want the courts to let us know."

St. Albans, a city and county-seat of Franklin county, Vt., near Lake Champlain. On Oct. 19, 1864, a party of armed Confederate refugees in Canada, under the leadership of Lieut. Bennett H. Young, raided the town in the afternoon and at-

tacked the St. Albans, Franklin County, and First National banks. They overpowered the few employés of the banks then on duty, secured an aggregate of $211,150 in bank-notes, seized all the horses they could find, and rode off hastily towards Canada. The party numbered between thirty and forty, and the entire proceeding occupied only about twenty minutes. Nearly the entire party was captured by the Canadian authorities.

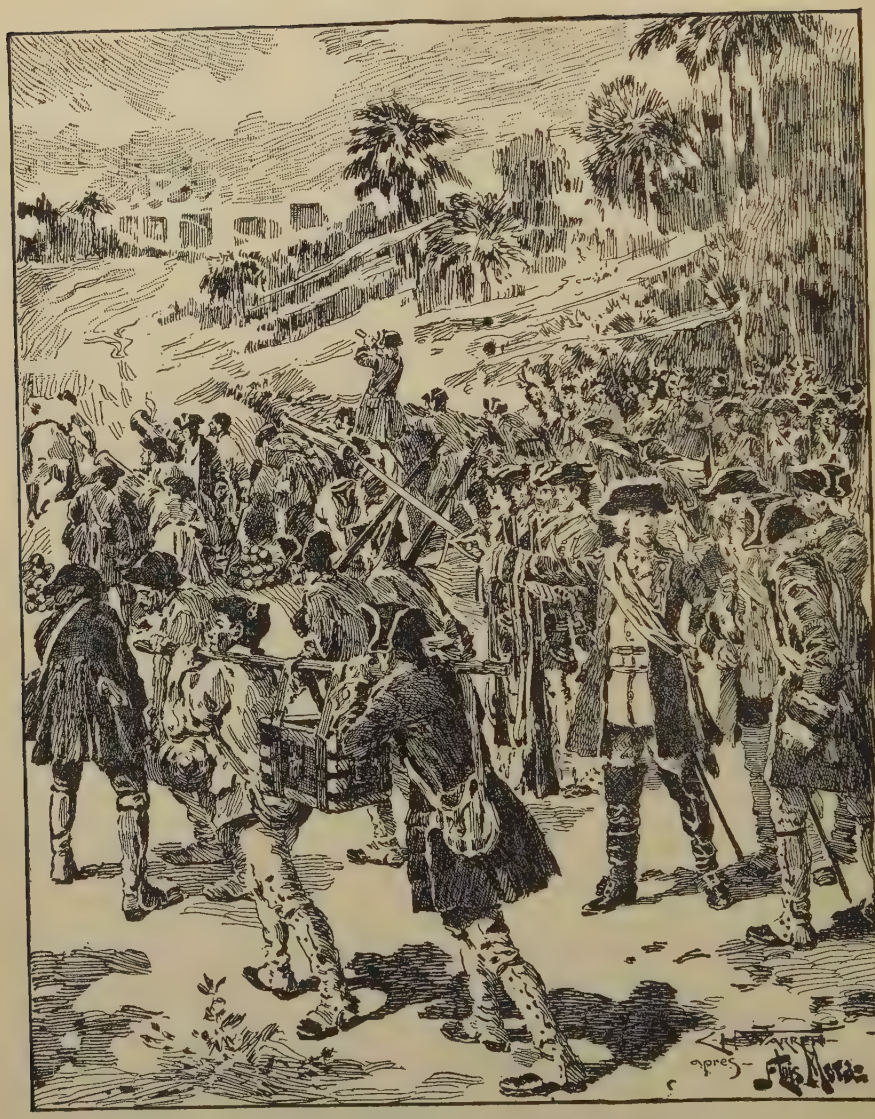
In 1867 the town was again a centre of public interest. An invasion of Canada from the United States had been arranged for the spring by members of the Fenian Brotherhood. Buffalo, N. Y., and Detroit, Mich., were chosen as the principal rendezvous, and St. Albans, Vt., and Ogdensburg, N. Y., as depots for the accumulation of arms and stores, and as points of departure for subordinate contingents of the "army of invasion." The vigilance of the United States government and lack of harmony among the Fenian leaders prevented anything more serious than a border excitement. Pop. (1900), 6,239; (1910) 6,381.

St. Andrew, Brotherhood of, an organization of men in the Protestant Episcopal Church. Its sole object is the spread of Christ's kingdom among men. It works under two rules, known as (1) The Rule of Prayer: To pray daily for the spread of Christ's kingdom among men, and that Christ's blessing may be upon the labors of the Brotherhood; and (2) The Rule of Service: To make an earnest effort each week to bring at least one man within the hearing of the Gospel of Jesus Christ.

The Brotherhood started in St. James's Church, Chicago, on St. Andrew's Day, 1883. It takes its name from the apostle who, when he had found the Messiah, first found his own brother Simon and brought him to Jesus. This Brotherhood in St. James's parish was started simply as a parochial organization, with no thought of its extending beyond the limits of the parish. Its work, however, was so successful in bringing men to church that attention was called to it, and other brotherhoods, having the same objects and the same rules, were formed in other parishes in Chicago and in different parts of the country. In 1886 there were about thirty-five of these separate brotherhoods. It then was proposed to form them into one general Church organization. This was done in 1886. Since that time the Brotherhood has gone on growing and has spread to all parts of the United States. There are now 1,500 active chapters, with a membership of about 15,000. The Brotherhood in the United States includes a junior department, having 500 chapters and about 6,000 members.

St. Augustine, city, port of entry, and capital of St. John county, Fla.; on the Matanzas River, near the Atlantic Ocean; 36 miles s. of Jacksonville. It is now especially noted as a popular winter resort, and has three of the largest and most sumptuous hotels in the world. Pop. (1910), 5,494. It is the oldest town in the United States. As early as 1512 Ponce de Leon landed in this vicinity; but Pedro Menendez de Airlés (1519–74), a Spanish naval commander, is credited with having founded the city in 1565.

When Menendez gave up the chase of the Frenchmen under Ribault (see Huguenots), he turned back towards the Florida coasts, entered an estuary in a boat manned by six oarsmen, leaving his large flag-ship at anchor outside, and, accompanied by his chaplain, Mendoza, and followed by other boats filled with "gentlemen" and ecclesiastics, he went ashore, while trumpets sounded, drums beat, cannons thundered, and flags waved. The chaplain walked at head of the procession, bearing a large cross and chanting a hymn. Menendez followed with his train, carrying in his own hand the standard of Spain unfurled. Mendoza, arrayed in rich sacerdotal garments, kissed the Cross, and then planted it in the sand by the side of the staff that upheld the royal standard, and against which leaned a shield bearing the arms of Spain. Then, after all had done homage to the priest, Menendez took formal possession of the country in the name of Philip of Spain. With such consecration he laid the foundation of the city of St. Augustine. From that spot he marched to the destruction of the Huguenots on the St. John, and there the unfortunate Ribault and his followers were slain (see Ribault, Jean). Such was the human sacrifice at the founding of St. Augustine.



OGLETHORPE'S EXPEDITION AGAINST ST. AUGUSTINE.

Soon after the beginning of "Queen Anne's War" (see ANNE, QUEEN), Governor Moore, of South Carolina, proposed an expedition against the Spaniards at St. Augustine. The Assembly appropriated $10,000 for the service. An army of 1,200 men (one-half Indians) was raised, and proceeded in two divisions to the attack. The governor, with the main division, went by sea to blockade the harbor, and the remainder, under Colonel Daniels, proceeded along the coast. The latter arrived first and plundered the town, the Spaniards retiring within their fortress with provisions for four months. Their position was impreg-

nable, for the Carolinians had no artillery. Daniels went to Jamaica to procure battering cannon, but before his return two Spanish war-vessels appeared. Governor Moore raised the blockade and fled. This expedition burdened the colony with a debt of more than $26,000, for the payment of which bills of credit were issued —the first emission of paper money in South Carolina. Oglethorpe, having been joined by a South Carolina regiment and a company of Highlanders, marched with his whole force, about 2,000 strong, to Fort Moosa, within 2 miles of St. Augustine, in May, 1740. The Spanish garrison evacuated the fort and fled into the town. Oglethorpe proceeded to reconnoitre the town and castle, and, finding they had more than 1,000 defenders, determined to turn the siege into a blockade with some ships lying at anchor near the bar. Having disposed troops so as to hold important points, Oglethorpe, with the remainder, went to the island of Anastasia, lying opposite, from which he might bombard the castle. After planting batteries there he summoned the Spanish governor to surrender; but, secure in his stronghold, he sent word to Oglethorpe that he should be glad to shake hands with him in his castle. Indignant at this reply, the general opened his batteries against the castle, and, at the same time, threw a number of bombshells into the town. The fire was returned with spirit from the castle and armed ships, but the distance was so great that very little damage was done. Meanwhile a party of Spaniards went out and attacked the Georgian garrison at Fort Moosa and cut it in pieces. The Chickasaw Indians with Oglethorpe, offended at some incautious expression of his, deserted him, and the Spaniards by some means received a reinforcement of 700 men. All prospects of success began to fade. The Carolina troops, enfeebled by the heat of the climate and dispirited by much sickness, marched away in considerable numbers; and the naval commanders thought it imprudent to remain longer on the coast, for the season of hurricanes was nigh. The enterprise was accordingly abandoned in July.

In violation of the capitulation at Charleston, many of the patriotic citizens were torn from their families, taken to St. Augustine, and imprisoned, when they were required a second time to give their parole to keep within certain limits as the price of their release from close confinement. Among the prisoners was the sturdy patriot Col. Christopher Gadsden (*q. v.*). He had been treacherously taken from his bed at night and conveyed on board a prison-ship. Gadsden was required by the commanding officer at St. Augustine to give his parole. He refused, saying he had already given his parole and kept it inviolate, that his rights as a paroled prisoner had been violated, and that he would not trust his persecutors again. The commander haughtily said he would hear no arguments, and demanded an explicit answer whether Gadsden would or would not give his parole. "I will not," answered Gadsden, firmly. "In God I put my trust, and fear no consequences." He was confined in a loathsome prison, apart from his fellow-patriots, until exchanged, in July, 1781, eleven months after the surrender at Charleston.

St. Brandan (or **Brendan**), abbot of Cluainfert, Ireland; died May 16, 577. According to a popular story of the Middle Ages, he with seventy-five monks spent seven years on an island far in the Atlantic Ocean. The island was believed to be visible from the Canaries.

St. Clair, Arthur, military officer; born in Thurso, Caithness, Scotland, in 1734; was a grandson of the Earl of Roslyn, and was educated at the University of Edinburgh. He studied medicine under the celebrated Hunter, of London, but inheriting a large sum of money from his mother, he purchased an ensign's commission in a regiment of foot (May 13, 1757) and came in Boscawen's fleet to America in 1758. He was with Amherst at the capture of Louisburg, and, promoted to lieutenant in April, 1759, distinguished himself, under Wolfe, at Quebec. In May, 1760, he married, at Boston, a half-sister of Governor Bowdoin; resigned his commission in 1762, and in 1764 settled in Ligonier Valley, Pa., where he established mills and built a fine dwelling-house. Having held, by appointment, several civil offices of trust, he became a colonel of militia in 1775, and in the fall of that year accompanied Pennsylvania commissioners to treat with the Western Indians at Fort Pitt. As colonel of the

2d Pennsylvania Regiment, he was ordered to Canada in February, 1776, and in the early summer aided Sullivan in saving his army from capture. In August he was made a brigadier-general, and joined Washington in November. St. Clair was actively engaged in New Jersey until April, 1777, when he took command of Ticonderoga, which he was compelled to evacuate (July 4–5), by the presence of Burgoyne in overwhelming force. After that he was a member of Washington's military family, acting as his aide at the battle near the Brandywine. He was with Sullivan in the Seneca country in 1779. St. Clair commanded the light infantry in the absence of Lafayette, and was a member of the court that condemned Major André. He was in command at West Point from Oct. 1, 1780, and aided in suppressing the mutiny of the Pennsylvania line in January, 1781. Joining Washington in October, he participated in the capture of Cornwallis, and afterwards led a body of troops to join Greene in South Carolina, driving the British from Wilmington on the way. He was afterwards a delegate in Congress; president of that body (February to November, 1787); appointed governor of the Northwestern Territory (February, 1788); fixed the seat of government at Cincinnati, and, in honor of the Cincinnati Society, gave the place that name.

MAP OF THE NORTHWESTERN TERRITORY.

Made commander-in-chief of the army (March 4, 1791), he moved against the Indians on the Wabash, while so lame from gout that he was carried on a litter. The Indians, encouraged by the defeat of Harmar (October, 1790), had spread terror over the frontier settlements in the Northwestern Territory. In May, 1791, Gen. Charles Scott, of Kentucky, led 800 men, and penetrated to the Wabash country, almost to the present site of Lafayette, Ind., and destroyed several Indian villages. At the beginning of August General Wilkinson, with more than 500 men, pushed into the same region to Tippecanoe and the surrounding prairies, destroyed some villages of Kickapoos, and made his way to the Falls of the Ohio, opposite Louisville. These forays caused the Indians to fight more desperately for their country. Congress then prepared to plant forts in the Northwestern Territory, and in September there were 2,000 troops at Fort Washington, under the immediate command of Gen. Richard Butler. With General St. Clair as chief, these troops marched northward. They built Fort Hamilton, on the Miami River, 20 miles from Fort Washington, and garrisoned it. Forty-two miles farther on they built Fort Jefferson, and, when moving from that post, late in October, there were evidences that Indian scouts were hovering on their

MAJOR-GENERAL ARTHUR ST. CLAIR

flanks. The invaders halted and encamped on a tributary of the Wabash, in Darke county, O., 100 miles north from Fort Washington (now Cincinnati). There the wearied soldiers slept (Nov. 3), without suspicion of danger near. During the night the sentinels gave warning of prowling Indians, and early the next morning, while the army were preparing for breakfast, they were furiously attacked by the barbarians. With great difficulty St. Clair escaped on a pack-horse, after having three horses killed under him. Among the fugitives were 100 women, wives of soldiers, most of whom escaped. St. Clair lost nearly half of his army—over 800 men killed and wounded. The remainder returned to Fort Washington.

Blamed severely, a committee of Congress vindicated St. Clair; but he resigned his commission, March 5, 1792, and in November, 1802, Jefferson removed him from the governorship in the Northwest. He was then broken in health, spirits, and fortune, and, retiring to a log house on the summit of Chestnut Ridge, among the Alleghany Mountains, he there passed the remainder of his days in poverty, while he had unsettled righteous claims against the government. Five years before his death the legislature of Pennsylvania granted him an annuity of $400, and, a short time before his death, a pension from the government of $60 a month was awarded him. He published a narrative of his unfortunate campaign against the Indians. He died in Greensburg, Pa., Aug. 31, 1818.

St. Croix. See DANISH WEST INDIES.

St. Die-en-Vosges. See RINGMANN, MATHIAS; WALDSEEMULLER, MARTIN.

St. Eustatius, CAPTURE OF. While negotiations between the Dutch and English were going on at The Hague, British cruisers pounced upon Dutch merchantmen, capturing 200 ships of the republic of Holland, worth, with their cargoes, 15,000,000 guilders. Swift cutters were sent to Admiral Rodney at Barbados to seize the Dutch island of St. Eustatius, in the West Indies. Suddenly, on Feb. 3, 1781, the British West India fleet and army, after making a feint on the coast of Martinique, appeared off the doomed island and demanded of Governor De Graat its surrender within an hour. The surprised and astonished inhabitants, unable to offer any resistance, and ignorant of war between their home government and Great Britain, surrendered the post and its dependencies, at the same time invoking clemency for the town. The island was a rich prize, for it was a free port for all nations and was "one continued store of French, Dutch, American, and English property." All the magazines and storehouses were filled, and even the beach was covered with tobacco and sugar. The value of merchandise found there was estimated at $15,000,000. There were taken in the bay a Dutch frigate, five smaller vessels of war, and 10 merchantships. Thirty richly laden Dutch ships which had just left the island were overtaken by a detachment from Rodney's fleet and captured, together with their convoy, a 60-gun Dutch ship. Keeping the Dutch flag flying on the island, no less than seventeen Dutch ships were decoyed into port and seized.

St. Francis Indians, a tribe inhabiting a village on the edge of Canada, which was long a terror to the frontier settlers of New England. Enriched by plunder and the ransoms paid for their captives, they possessed a handsome chapel (they were Roman Catholics), with plate and ornaments. In their village might be seen, stretched on hoops, many scalps of both sexes, displayed as trophies of their valor in smiting the English. Against these Indians General Amherst, while at Crown Point, in 1759, sent Maj. Robert Rogers, a distinguished partisan officer, at the head of a corps of New Hampshire rangers. With 200 of his rangers Rogers traversed the forest so stealthily that he surprised the village in October, slew a large part of the warriors, and plundered and burned the town. Attempting to return by way of Lake Memphremagog and the Connecticut River, the rangers suffered terribly. Their provisions gave out, and some perished for want of food, others were killed by pursuing Indians, but the greater part reached Crown Point in safety.

Saint-Gaudens, AUGUSTUS, sculptor; born in Dublin, Ireland, March 1, 1848; was brought to the United States when an infant; learned the trade of cameo-cutter; studied drawing at Cooper Institute

in 1861; student at the National Academy of Design in 1865–66; then studied in Paris till 1870 and in Rome in 1871–72, producing in the latter city his first figure, *Hiawatha*. He returned to New York in 1873. Among his most important works are *Adoration of the Cross; The Puritan; Diana* (on tower of the old Madison Square Garden); statues of Abraham Lincoln, John A. Logan, Admiral Farragut, Peter Cooper, and Col. R. G. Shaw; monument of General Sherman, in New York City, and numerous other statues, busts, etc. He designed the Medal of Award of the Columbian Exposition; several medals authorized by Congress; the Parnell Memorial monument; the Hanna memorial for Cleveland, O.; and the new United States gold coins and one-cent piece. He died in Cornish, N. H., Aug. 3, 1907.

MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT AT ST. JOHN, 1850.

St. John, JOHN PIERCE, lawyer; born in Brookville, Ind., Feb. 25, 1833; was educated in Indiana; served in the Union army during the Civil War, attaining the rank of lieutenant-colonel; was elected to the Kansas State senate in 1872, and governor of Kansas in 1879; and was the Prohibition candidate for President of the United States in 1884, receiving 151,809 popular votes. In 1900 he supported Mr. Bryan for President, is an advocate of the free coinage of both gold and silver, prohibition, and woman suffrage.

St. John, SIEGE OF. General Montgomery was in command of the American army invading Canada. On Sept. 10, 1775, left Isle aux Noix and landed 1,000 troops near St. John. Some troops from New Hampshire, Lamb's artillery, and the Green Mountain Boys, led by Col. Seth Warner, also joined him. The garrison was well supplied with provisions and ammunition. This circumstance, the disaster to Ethan Allen near Montreal, and the insubordination and mutinous spirit displayed by the Connecticut and New York troops, prolonged the siege. It lasted fifty-five days. On the evening of Nov. 2 Preston heard of the defeat of Carleton, and was notified of the fall of Chambly. Montgomery demanded an immediate surrender. Preston asked a delay of four days. His request was denied, and the garrison became prisoners of war on the 3d, marching out of the fort with the honors of war. There were 500 regulars and 100 Canadian volunteers. The spoils were forty-eight pieces of artillery, 800 small-arms, some naval stores, and a quantity of lead and shot.

St. Joseph, Mo. The city was first settled by Joseph Ribideaux, in 1843; incorporated as a town in 1845; and chartered as a city in 1885. After the discovery of gold in California it became prominent as the starting-point for mining parties on their way across the prairies. The city was the eastern terminus of the famous Pony Express, established in 1861 between California and the Missouri. Pop. (1900), 102,979; (1910) 77,403.

St. Joseph, FORT. On the morning of May 25, 1763, a party of Pottawattomie Indians appeared before the English post at the mouth of the St. Joseph's River, on Lake Michigan. The fort was garrisoned by an ensign and fourteen men. With friendly greetings the Pottawattomies were permitted to enter the fort, and in "two minutes" they had massacred the whole garrison (see PONTIAC). In 1781 the Spanish, under Don Pourré, captured the fort, which was at that time garrisoned by the British. It was restored to the United States by the treaty of 1783.

St. Lawrence, MOVEMENT ON THE. When news of the declaration of war between the United States and Great Britain (June, 1812) reached Ogdensburg, N. Y., on the St. Lawrence, eight American schooners—trading-vessels—lay in the harbor. They endeavored to escape into Lake Ontario, bearing away affrighted families and their effects. An active

Canadian partisan named Jones had raised a company of men to capture them. He gave chase in boats, overtook the unarmed flotilla at the foot of the Thousand Islands, captured two of the schooners, and emptied and burned them (June 29). A rumor was circulated that the British were erecting fortifications among the Thousand Islands and that expeditions of armed men were to be sent across the St. Lawrence to devastate American settlements on its borders. General Brown and Commander Woolsey, of the *Oneida*, were vested with ample power to provide for the defence of that frontier. Colonel Benedict, of St. Lawrence county, was ordered to guard the region from Ogdensburg to St. Regis (*q. v.*) with a competent force, and militia were gathered at Ogdensburg and St. Vincent. This was the first warlike movement on the river in the War of 1812–15.

St. Leger, Barry, military officer; born in England in 1737; entered the army as ensign in 1749; came to America with his regiment in 1757, and was with Wolfe at Quebec. He was appointed lieutenant-colonel in 1772, and in 1775 was sent to Canada, where he took charge of an unsuccessful expedition to the Mohawk Valley, by way of Lake Ontario, in 1777, to assist Burgoyne in his invasion. He died in 1789.

ST. LOUIS

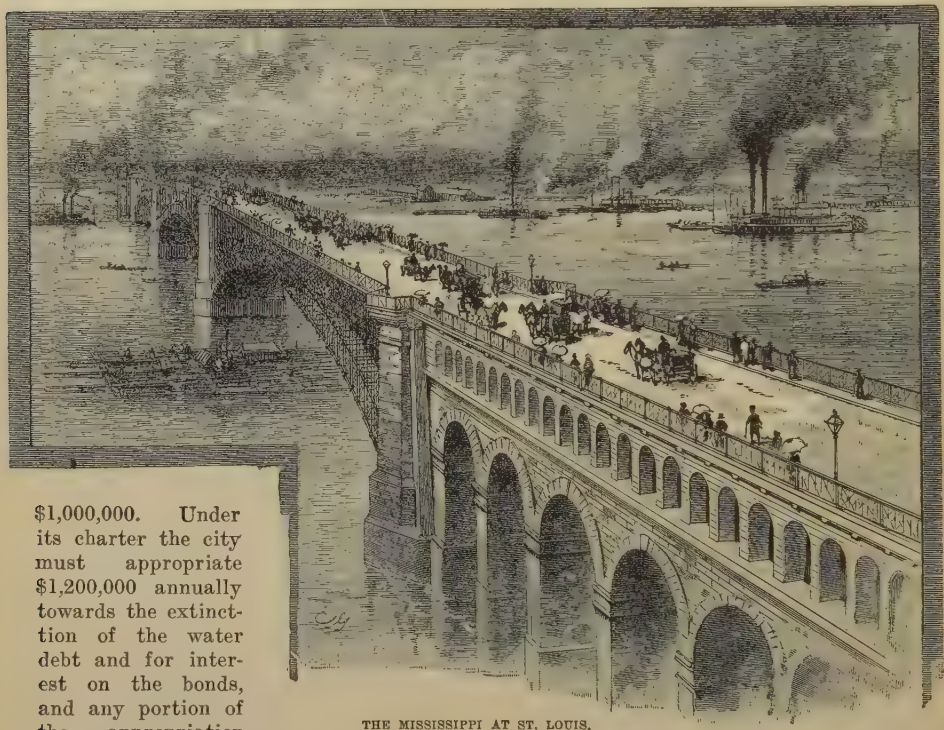
St. Louis, city, port of delivery, commercial metropolis of the Mississippi Valley, and fourth city in the United States in population according to the federal census of 1910; co-extensive with St. Louis county, Mo.; is popularly known as the "Mound City." Pop. (1900), 575,238; (1910) 687,029.

Location, Area, etc.—It is situated on the west bank of the Mississippi River, 20 miles below the mouth of the Missouri and 190 miles above that of the Ohio, and on the line of more than a dozen of the most important railroads in the country. It has an area of sixty-six square miles, with a river-frontage of nineteen miles, and extends twenty-one miles on its western line and six miles back from the river. The densest portion stretches about ten miles along the river, with a width of about four miles. The surface rises from the river in three terraces of 20, 150, and 200 feet, respectively, to Grant Avenue, where it broadens into a beautiful plateau, pleasingly undulating. The streets are quite regularly laid out, and the buildings are numbered on the Philadelphia plan, 100 to each block. Streets parallel with the river are numbered north and south of Market Street, and the numbering of those running east and west begins at the Levee. One of the most notable features of the topography and adornment of the city is the extensive and liberally supported system of public parks, squares, and other reservations.

Public Interests.—The State constitution separated the city from the county and gave the former, in addition to the usual municipal powers, the authority vested in the other counties. The city charter framed in 1876 was considered by students of municipal administration as a model. It made possible a larger municipal independence than the city had previously enjoyed, and St. Louis soon became the most distinctive home-rule city in the United States. In 1877 the city and county were merged, the former assuming the debts of the latter; and in 1902 constitutional amendments were adopted which permitted the city to frame a new charter, to levy an additional tax of thirty-five cents for municipal purposes, and to exempt the county debt of $6,111,000 and the water-works debt of $5,808,000 in determining the limit of the city's gross indebtedness. Under the latter authorization the city had power to increase its indebtedness by about $8,000,000, provided the increase was sanctioned by two-thirds of the voters at an election for that purpose. On June 22, 1902, the charter was amended according to the foregoing provisions, and at the election on June 12, 1906, a proposition to issue $11,200,000 additional bonds was carried. All the bonds were issued.

In 1911 the city had 992⅔ miles of streets, of which 591 were paved; 651 miles of sewers; a police department of 1,626 men, costing annually about $2,101,000, and a

fire department of 778 men, costing about $878,600. The water-works system, owned by the city, cost $20,000,000, had 885 miles of mains and a daily capacity of 180,000,000 gallons, and yielded a revenue of $2,500,000, with net operating expenses and cost of collecting water rates of about $1,000,000. Under its charter the city must appropriate $1,200,000 annually towards the extinction of the water debt and for interest on the bonds, and any portion of the appropriation not required for interest constitutes the sinking-fund, which in 1910 held $1,387,840. The assessed valuations of taxable property for 1910 aggregated $565,566,173; the tax rate was $14,70 per $1,000; the total bonded debt, April 11, 1910, was $24,872,700, including the water debt of $3,426,000; and the annual cost of maintaining the city government was about $11,268,300.



THE MISSISSIPPI AT ST. LOUIS.

Commerce and Trade.—Although a considerable quantity of the commerce of the city is credited to the port of New Orleans, St. Louis had direct importations of foreign merchandise in the calendar year 1910 to the value of $6,000,276. Unusually favorable transportation facilities, afforded by the railroad and water communications, and the extent and variety of its manufactures, combine to make St. Louis a great wholesale and retail trade, jobbing, and shipping centre, with the whole of the lower Mississippi Valley and the Southwest for its special field. The wholesale trade alone now exceeds in value $800,000,000 per annum, a few of the leading articles being beer, in the manufacture of which the city surpasses all others, dry-goods, groceries, footwear, chemicals, hardware, furniture, wool, hides and furs, tobacco, glass, railroad cars, agricultural implements, wooden ware, drugs, silk, and millinery.

It was anticipated that after the close of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in 1904 there would be some recession of the tide of business; but by the summer of 1905 the banks and post-office were doing more business than a year before, and there was no branch of the city's industrial activities in which the tide was not flowing to higher than known markets.

St. Louis is an interior port of entry to which foreign merchandise may be transported without appraisement at the port of original importation into the United States.

Manufactures.—According to the United States Census of 1910, St. Louis had 2,667 manufacturing and mechanical establishments under the factory-system classification, which were operated on a total capital of $268,491,000; employed 15,349 salaried officials and clerks and 87,097 wage-earners; paid for salaries and wages $68,105,000, and for materials used in manufacturing $187,599,000; and had a combined output valued at $327,676,000. The principal industries were the manufacture of tobacco in all forms; wholesale slaughtering and meat-packing; malt liquors; foundry and machine-shop products; boots and shoes (factory work); men's clothing (factory work); steam-railroad cars; coffee and spices; carriages and wagons; flour and grist mill products; iron and steel; and furniture (factory work). Here are located the largest brewery, tobacco factory, fire-brick plant, tin and sheet-iron stamping mill, and cracker bakery in the world, and also the largest wholesale drug-house and hardware and wooden-ware establishments.

Banks.—St. Louis is one of the three central reserve cities under the national banking system and the fifth city in the country in amount of annual clearings. At the end of 1910 there were ten national banks, with aggregate capital of $21,100,000; surplus, $12,055,000; outstanding circulation, $18,519,480; individual deposits, $71,355,208; loans and liabilities balancing at $210,960,418. In the year ending Sept. 30, 1910, the exchanges at the United States clearing-house here amounted to $3,704,263,700, against $1,656,343,626 in 1900.

Churches.—St. Louis is the seat of a Roman Catholic archbishop and of a Protestant Episcopal bishop, and has 341 churches and 47 other places of worship, the Roman Catholic predominating in members. The most noticeable churches of the latter communion are the Cathedral on Walnut Street, having a façade of polished freestone, a Doric portico, and a lofty spire containing a chime of bells; St. Xavier's, accounted the handsomest Catholic structure in the city, on Grand and Lindell avenues; St. Alphonsus's, on North Grand and Easton avenues; and Sts. Peter and Paul's, on Allen Avenue. The principal Protestant Episcopal is Christ Church, of stone, with lofty nave, and architecturally representing the cathedral-Gothic style. It is on the corner of Locust and Thirteenth streets. Among Presbyterian churches of note are the Grand Avenue, First, Second, Central, Lafayette, and Cumberland; among the Congregational, the First and Pilgrim, the latter having a handsome belfry containing a full set of chimes; and among the Jewish, the Temple on Pine Street and the Synagogue on Lindell Avenue, both attractive structures. The Unitarians have a Gothic Church of the Messiah; the Methodists, the Union Church; and the Baptists, a handsome stone edifice.

Schools and Colleges.—The city has a school population of over 196,000, and of this number about 88,000 are enrolled in the public schools and 30,000 in private and parochial schools. The annual cost of the public-school system is over $2,912,500, and the value of public-school property exceeds $7,000,000. Secondary instruction is provided in a high school for white pupils and a summer high school for colored; and, among private institutions, by the Academy of the Visitation (R. C.), Bishop Robertson Hall (P. E.), Hosmer Hall (non-sect.), Loretto Academy (R. C.), Phillips School (non-sect.), Sacred Heart Academy (R. C.), Ursuline Academy and Day School (R. C.), and Walther College (Luth.).

The institutions for higher instruction include St. Louis University (R. C.), opened in 1829; Christian Brothers College (R. C.), opened in 1851; and Washington University (non-sect.), opened in 1859. The last named has grounds and buildings valued at over $2,815,000, scientific apparatus and equipment valued at about $532,500, and productive funds of over $7,086,000. The university includes the college proper, the School of Engineering, the Shaw School of Botany, the St. Louis School of Fine Arts, law and medical schools, and, as preparatory schools, Smith Academy for boys, Mary Institute for girls, and a manual training school, one of the first in the United States.

Among the professional schools not mentioned above are the Concordia Theological Seminary (Evan. Luth.), opened in 1839; Eden Theological Seminary (Ger. Evan. Synod of N. A.), opened in 1850; and the Kenrick Theological Seminary (R. C.), opened in 1893; Benton College of Law, 1896; and Missouri College of Law, 1899; Barnes Medical College, 1892; Marion Sims Beaumont College of Medicine; St. Louis College of Physicians and Surgeons, 1879; Homœopathic Medical College of Missouri, 1857; and the American Medical College, 1873; Marion Sims and Washington University dental colleges; St. Louis College of Pharmacy; Normal School of St. Louis University; and twelve training schools for nurses, connected with the hospitals.

There are many public, society, and school libraries, the largest of which are the Public, St. Louis Mercantile, St. Louis University, Law Association, Washington University, Washington University Law School, Missouri Botanical Garden, Missouri Historical Society, and St. Louis Academy of Science.

Charities.—St. Louis has a grand array of charitable institutions and beneficent activities. The hospitals include the Evangelical Deaconess, Good Samaritan, Lutheran, Mayfield Sanitarium, Mission Baptist Sanitarium, Protestant, Provident, Rebekah, St. Louis Baptist, St. Louis City, St. Louis Mullanphy, and St. Luke's, each with a training school for nurses, and a United States Marine Hospital. For the defective classes there are the County Insane Asylum, the Missouri School for the Blind, the Gallaudet School for the Deaf, and the House of Refuge.

Notable Buildings.—The County Court-House is a limestone building in the form of a cross, with a lofty dome in which are noteworthy frescoes by Karl Weimer. It occupies the square bounded by Chestnut, Market, Fourth, and Fifth streets, and cost $1,200,000. The City Hall, of stone and brick, on the square bounded by Clark Avenue and Market, Twelfth, and Thirteenth streets, cost $2,000,000, and the building locally known as the Four Courts, containing police headquarters, criminal courts, and other public bureaus, on Clark Avenue, planned after the Louvre in Paris, cost $1,000,000. The United States Government Building, accommodating the Custom-House, Post-Office, and Sub-Treasury, is of Maine granite with rose-colored granite trimmings, and cost nearly $8,000,000. The building of the Chamber of Commerce is 223 feet long by 187 feet deep, and six stories high, is built of gray limestone, has an exchange 222 feet long, 65 feet wide, and 60 feet high, and cost $1,500,000.

Cupples Station, the centre of a group of great warehouses, where the wholesale trades are concentrated, and where goods are loaded directly from warehouse to cars; the St. Louis Elevator, on the Levee at the foot of Ashley Street, having a capacity of 2,000,000 bushels; the Mercantile Library, with its choice collection of paintings, coins, and statuary; the Museum of Fine Arts, with art schools, lecture hall, and collections of paintings, statuary, ceramic ware, wood-carving, and casts from Grecian and Egyptian antiques; the Fair Grounds, with its great amphitheatre; the Exposition Building; the Union Market; and the Levee—should all be visited by tourists.

Foremost among the attractions of the city is the great St. Louis, or Eads, Bridge, extending from the foot of Washington Avenue across the Mississippi to East St. Louis. It was projected by the late James B. Eads, begun in 1869, completed in 1874, and cost, with 4,800 feet of tunnel, over $10,000,000. Three miles further up the river is the Merchants' Bridge, built in 1889–90 at a cost of $3,000,000, and used for railroad traffic exclusively. The Grand Avenue Bridge across the railroad tracks is a suspension structure of much attractiveness. The Union Railway Station, erected at a cost of $6,500,000, is a focal point of twenty-seven lines of railways, and is the largest structure of its kind in the world.

Parks, Monuments, etc.—The public parks, squares, and recreation-grounds now embrace an area of about 2,500 acres, and, adequate as they have seemed to be in the past, the St. Louis Civic Improvement League has undertaken a great work for the beautifying of the city, involving among other schemes the creation of a new boulevard and park system. The principal parks at present are Lafayette

30 acres, containing bronze statues of Thomas H. Benton and George Washington; Forest, the handsomest in the city, 1,371 acres, containing a zoological garden, driving-park, athletic-fields, and bronze statues of Frank P. Blair and Edward Bates; Tower Grove, 276 acres, with statues of Columbus, Humboldt, and Shakespeare; Shaw's Gardens, 109 acres, presented to the city with endowment of about $5,000,000 by Henry Shaw, containing a Floretum, Fruticetum, Arboretum, Herbarium, and Labyrinth; Carondelet, 180 acres; O'Fallon, 160 acres; Hyde, 12 acres, and St. Louis Place, 11 acres. During the summer season weekly concerts are given in all the principal parks.

History.—In 1762 the Governor-General of Louisiana, then a French province, granted authority to Pierre Ligueste Laclede and his partners, comprising the Louisiana Fur Company, to establish trading posts on the Mississippi, and on Feb. 15, 1764, Auguste Chouteau, representing the firm, selected the site of St. Louis for a headquarters, and named it as at present. In the following year St. Auge de Bellerive, French commandant at Fort De Chartres, arrived, and was invested with civil and military power. A body of Spanish troops under Captain Prios took possession of the post in the name of their King, on Aug. 11, 1768, but exercised no civil functions, and retired in July, 1769. In the latter year the Indian chief Pontiac was murdered while visiting the French commandant, near Cahokia, and was buried near the present corner of Walnut and Fourth streets, and Don Pedro Pieruas took possession of the post, having been appointed Spanish lieutenant-governor and military commandant of Upper Louisiana.

In 1779 a wall of brush and clay five feet high was built around the town and a small defensive work, named Fort La Tour, was erected on the site of the present Fourth Street near Walnut. These precautions were soon put to the test, for on May 26, 1780, a band of 1,500 Indians, led by British regulars from Fort Michilimackinac, surprised the people outside of the wall, killed fifteen or twenty, and then assaulted the town, but were repulsed with only a small loss to the defenders. Spain held possession of the Louisiana Territory till 1798, and then receded it to France, by whom it was sold to the United States for $15,000,000, the act of cession bearing the date of March 9, 1803. The actual transfer took place at St. Louis. Charles Dehauet Delassus de Delusière formally delivered the territory to Amos Stoddard, representing France, on March 9, 1804, and Stoddard turned it over to the American authorities on the following day.

St. Louis was incorporated as a town on Nov. 9, 1809; welcomed the *Harriet*, the first steamboat direct from New Orleans, June 2, 1819; was incorporated as a city, with an area of 385 acres, Dec. 9, 1822; inaugurated its first water-works in 1832; lost four per cent. of its population within a month from cholera in 1832; received a new city charter, Feb. 26, 1835, and another, Feb. 11, 1839; launched its first home-built steamboat in 1842; and in 1849 suffered two calamities—a fire destroyed twenty-seven vessels in the river and 400 buildings in the city, causing a loss of $2,750,000, and an epidemic of cholera resulted in over 4,000 deaths in four months.

In 1867 the legislature authorized the consolidation of Carondelet with St. Louis, and in 1871 a new city charter, covering the consolidation, went into effect. The new State Constitution of 1875, besides separating the city from the county, extended the city limits to include nearly 40,000 acres bordering on the river, and in the same year the city acquired Carondelet, Forest, and O'Fallon parks. Other charter changes have already been mentioned.

On May 27, 1896, the city was visited by a cyclone which overthrew many buildings, destroyed shipping, tore out a shore span of the great bridge, greatly injured Tower Grove and Lafayette parks and Shaw's Gardens, and caused a loss of several hundred lives and of a large amount of property. During 1902–3 a number of public officials were successfully prosecuted on charges of bribery by Joseph W. Folk, then district attorney, and later governor of the State.

The centennial anniversary of the purchase of the Louisiana Territory, authorized by Congress for 1903 and postponed a year, was celebrated here by an inter-

national exposition, opened April 30, 1904, and closed on Dec. 1 following, during which time the total attendance was 18,741,073, and the largest single day, St. Louis Day, Sept. 15, 404,450. The total cost was $44,500,000, and the exposition closed free of debt, but with no prospect of dividends for citizen subscribers. The National Government and nearly all the States and Territories had special buildings, and threescore foreign countries and colonies were represented by exhibits. The score of large buildings contained 128 acres of exhibit floor space, far exceeding that of any other world's fair.

St. Louis Arsenal. Under the inspiration of a graduate of the West Point Academy, Daniel M. Frost, and under the lead of the governor of Missouri (C. F. Jackson), an attempt was made in May, 1861, to seize the United States Arsenal at St. Louis. The Confederates had already seized one unguarded arsenal at Liberty, Clay county, under the direction of the governor, but the one at St. Louis was guarded by 500 regular troops, under Capt. Nathaniel Lyon, who had been appointed commander of the post in place of Major Bell, a Confederate. The governor had sent orders to the militia officers of the State to assemble their respective commands and go into encampment for a week. For weeks before the President's call for troops the Confederates of St. Louis were drilled in the use of fire-arms; were furnished with State arms by the governor; received commissions from him, and were sworn into the military service of the State. They were closely watched by a few Unionists (who were largely of the German population) were formed into military companies, and drilled in the use of fire-arms. When the President's call for troops came, they openly drilled, made their place of meeting a citadel, established a perpetual guard, and kept up constant communication with the arsenal. They were denounced by the Confederates as "outlaws, incendiaries, and miscreants," preparing to make war on Missouri. They were relieved by an order from the President (April 30, 1861) for Captain Lyon to enroll into the military service of the United States the loyal citizens of St. Louis, in number not exceeding 1,000. This order was procured chiefly through the influence of Col. (afterwards Maj.-Gen.) Frank P. Blair, who had already raised and organized a regiment of Missourians, and assisted in the primary formation of four others.

Meanwhile, in accordance with an order from General Wool, a large portion of the arms at the arsenal were removed (April 26) secretly to Alton, Ill., in a steamboat, and thence by railway to Springfield. Frost, whom the governor had commissioned a brigadier-general, formed a militia camp in the suburbs of St. Louis, and, to deceive the people, kept the national flag flying over it. Captain Lyon enrolled a large number of volunteers, who occupied the arsenal grounds. Some of them, for want of room, occupied ground outside. The St. Louis police demanded their return to the government grounds, because they were "Federal soldiers, violating the rights of the sovereign State of Missouri." No attention was paid to this demand. To make his little force appear large, Lyon sent out squads at night to distant points, to return in the morning with drums beating and flags flying.

Finally word came to Lyon that cannon and mortars, in boxes marked "marble," had been landed from a steamboat and sent to Frost's Confederate camp. Disguised as a woman, closely veiled, Lyon rode around that camp, and was satisfied that it was time for him to act with vigor. Early in the afternoon of May 9, Lyon, by a quick movement, surrounded Frost's camp with 6,000 troops and heavy cannon, and placing guards so as to prevent any communication with the city, demanded of the commander the immediate surrender of men and munitions of war under him, giving him only thirty minutes for deliberation. Intelligence of this movement had reached the city, and an armed body of Confederates rushed out to assist their friends. They were too late. Frost surrendered his 1,200 militia, 1,200 new rifles, twenty cannon, several chests of muskets, and a large quantity of ammunition. Most of these materials of war had been stolen from the arsenal at Baton Rouge. The arsenal was saved.

St.-Luc, La Corne de, military officer; born in 1712. Prior to and during the French and Indian War he bitterly opposed the British; won great distinction at

the battle of Ticonderoga, capturing 150 of General Abercrombie's wagons; participated in the victory of St. Foy, near Quebec, and in the battle on the Plains of Abraham. When the Revolutionary War began he gave his support to the British side; incited the Indians of the North and Northwest against the colonists; took part in the capture of Ethan Allen; and later commanded the Indians in the Burgoyne campaign. He died in Montreal, Canada, Oct. 1, 1784.

St. Lusson, Sieur de, French officer. He visited the Indians on the Great Lakes in 1670–75, and on May 5, 1675, made treaties with seventeen different tribes at Sault Ste. Marie, and took possession of the country in the name of the King of France.

St. Mary's River, a channel connecting Lake Superior with Lake Huron. At Sault Ste. Marie, or St. Mary's Falls, there is a fall of 16 feet, and to enable vessels to avoid this a ship-canal has been built by the United States and Canadian governments. See Sault Ste. Marie Ship-Canal.

St. Memin, Charles Balthazar, Julien Fevre de, artist; born in Dijon, France, March 12, 1770; went to Canada in 1793 and soon after settled in New York. He made hundreds of profile portraits of the most prominent people in the United States. In 1798 he secured a profile of Washington, which is of interest, as it was the last portrait of him taken from life. In 1814 St. Mémin returned to France. He died in Dijon, France, June 23, 1852.

St. Michael, the chief port of Alaska on Bering Sea; also the trading port of the Yukon Valley. It is on Norton Sound, in a region swampy and subject to inundations, and could be given an excellent harbor by extensive dredging and other improvements. For many years it was an important station of the Russian Fur Company, and prior to the acquisition of Alaska by the United States was known as Mikhailovsk. See Alaska.

St. Michael, Defence of. On the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay was the little town of St. Michael, in Talbot county, Md., founded by ship-builders, and famous as the place where most of the swift-sailing privateers, called "Baltimore clippers," were built. Seven of these were on the stocks there in August, 1814, when Admiral Cockburn appeared, with the intention of destroying them and the village. The veteran Gen. Derry Benson, commander of the militia of Talbot county, prepared to receive the invaders. He constructed two redoubts, and the militia from the adjacent country were called to the defence of the place. Benson had, in the aggregate, about 300 men. Between midnight and dawn on Aug. 11 the invaders proceeded to the attack in eleven barges, each armed with a 6-pounder field-piece. The night was intensely dark, and the first intimation of their presence was the booming of their cannon. The Marylanders, though a little surprised, made a gallant resistance from the batteries. Under cover of their guns, the invaders landed in a compact body to storm the batteries, when a 9-pounder in one of them opened and cut a wide swath through the line of the British, killing nineteen and wounding many. The Americans, outnumbered, fell back to the other battery, and continued the contest until daylight, when the invaders, after spiking the guns of the lower battery, fled, discomfited, to their vessels.

St.-Ours, Jean Baptiste de, military officer; born in Canada in 1668; joined the French Canadian army early in life; promoted lieutenant in 1702, and soon after garde-marine; was one of the three in command of the expedition against Fort Orange (now Albany) in 1708. At the head of about 200 Iroquois Indians St.-Ours took the village and fort of Haverhill. Later he was made major of Montreal, and afterwards was appointed king's lieutenant. He died in Montreal, Canada, in 1747.

St. Paul, a city, county seat of Ramsey county, and capital of the State of Minnesota; on both sides of the Mississippi River, with the principal portion on the east bank, and the two parts connected by bridges. Four trans-continental and seven Eastern trunk line railroads pass through or extend to it, giving it exceptional importance as a shipping point. The site was first occupied by the whites by a small French colony, principally engaged in the fur trade, and its name was derived from the Roman Catholic mission

of St. Paul, established in 1841. Six years afterwards the settlement was plotted; in 1849 the town was made the territorial capital; and in 1854 it was given a city charter. Its remarkable development is due to its location at the head of navigation on the Mississippi as well as to its railroad connections. Pop. (1910), 214,744.

St. Philip, Fort, Attack on. While the armies were burying their dead on the field of strife near New Orleans after the battle there (Jan. 8, 1815), some of the British troops sought to secure the free navigation of the Mississippi for themselves by capturing Fort St. Philip, at a bend of the stream, 70 or 80 miles below New Orleans in a direct line. It was regarded as the key to Louisiana. It was garrisoned by 366 men, under Major Overton, of the Rifle Corps, and the crew of a gunboat which had been warped into a bayou at its side. A British squadron of five vessels appeared near the fort on the morning of Jan. 9 and anchored, out of range of the heavy guns of the fort, two bomb-vessels with their broadsides to the fort. These opened fire in the afternoon, and continued a bombardment and cannonade, with little interruption, until daybreak on the 18th. During that time the Americans were much exposed to rain and cold. The British cast more than 1,000 shells, besides many round and grape shot, upon the fort, the result of which was two Americans killed and seven wounded. They had expended 20,000 lbs. of powder, and withdrew without gaining the fort, spoils, or glory. See also Jackson and St. Philip, Forts.

St. Regis, Skirmish at. On each side of the boundary-line between the United States and Canada is the Indian village of St. Regis, at the mouth of the St. Regis River. In that village Captain McDonnell was placed, with some armed Canadian *voyageurs*, in September, 1812. Maj. G. D. Young, stationed at French Mills (afterwards Fort Covington), left that post on the night of Oct. 21 with about 200 men, crossed the St. Regis in a boat, a canoe, and on a hastily constructed raft, and before dawn was within half a mile of St. Regis. There they were rested and refreshed, and soon afterwards pushed forward and surrounded the town. Assailing the block-house, a sharp skirmish ensued, in which the British lost seven men killed, while not an American was hurt. The spoils of victory were forty prisoners (exclusive of the commander and the Roman Catholic priest), with their arms and accoutrements, thirty-eight muskets, two bateaux, a flag, and a quantity of baggage, including 800 blankets. The flag which waved over the block-house was captured by Lieut. William L. Marcy, afterwards governor of New York.

St. Sacrament Lake, a former name of Lake George; a beautiful sheet of water lying west of the upper end of Lake Champlain; originally named by Father Jogues, a Jesuit missionary who visited it about the middle of the seventeenth century. This lake was the theatre of important military events in the French and Indian War (*q. v.*) and the Revolutionary War. At the head of the lake Gen. Sir William Johnson was encamped early in September, 1755, with a body of provincial troops and a party of Indians under the Mohawk chief Hendrick. There he was attacked (Sept. 8) by the French under Dieskau, and would have been defeated but for the energy and skill of Gen. Phineas Lyman. The assailants were repulsed, and their leader (Dieskau) was badly wounded, made prisoner, sent to New York, and paroled. He died of his wounds not long afterwards. Johnson was knighted, and gave the name of Lake George to the sheet of water, in honor of his sovereign, by which name it is still known. At its head Fort William Henry was built, and suffered siege and capture by the French and Indians in 1757. The next year it was the scene of a vast armament upon its bosom going to the attack of Ticonderoga (*q. v.*).

St.-Simon, Claude Anne, Marquis de, military officer; born in the Castle of La Faye, Spain, in 1743; learned the art of gunnery and fortifications at Strasburg; distinguished himself in Flanders; and was chief of the body-guard of the King of Poland in 1758. After various services in Europe, he came to America with De Grasse, at the head of French troops, and assisted in the siege of Yorktown in 1781. In 1789 he was a deputy in the States-General. Being a native of Spain,

ne returned to the service of that country, and assisted in the defence of Madrid in 1808. He was made prisoner and condemned to death, but the sentence

CLAUDE ANNE ST.-SIMON.

was commuted to exile. After Ferdinand VII. was re-established on the throne (1814), St.-Simon returned to Spain. He died Jan. 3, 1819.

St. Tammany. See TAMMANY, ST.

St. Thomas. See DANISH WEST INDIES.

St. Vincent. See MARTINIQUE.

St. Vincent de Paul, SOCIETY OF, a Roman Catholic organization engaged in the work of caring for the Roman Catholic poor in the large cities of the United States. Its head is the superior council of the New York Circumscription, which has its office at No. 2 Lafayette Place. Local bodies, over which it has, in nearly all cases, jurisdiction, are known as particular councils. The principal work of the particular councils consists in visiting the poor and relieving them, procuring situations for deserving persons out of employment, and promoting attendance on the Sunday-schools of the Church.

Sala, GEORGE AUGUSTUS HENRY, journalist; born in London, England, in 1828; was educated in art, but turned his attention to literary work, and contributed to London magazines; was the American correspondent of the London *Telegraph* in 1863–64, and published *America in the Midst of War* and *America Revisited.* He died in Brighton, Dec. 8, 1895.

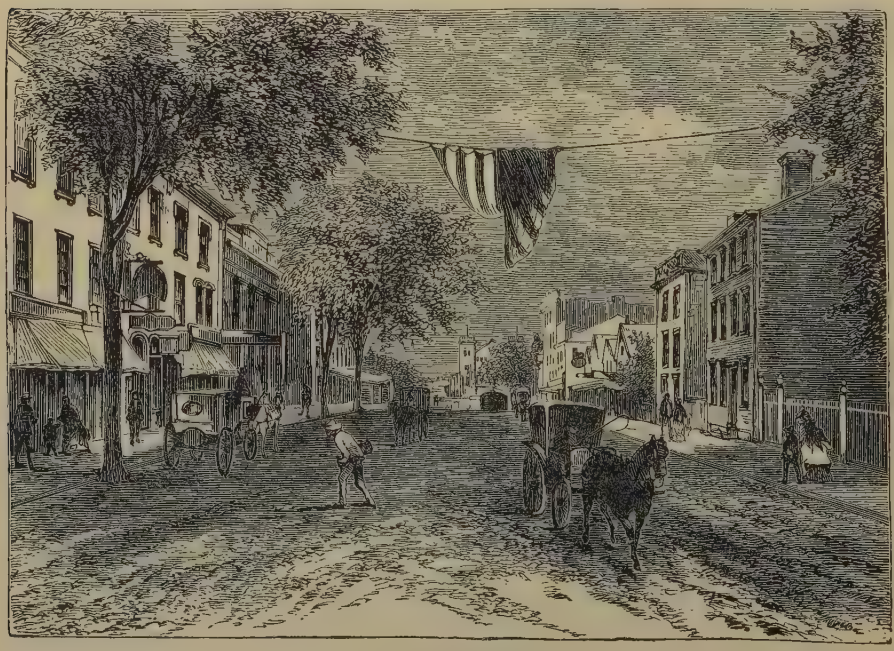
Salaberry, CHARLES MICHEL D'IRUMBERRY, Seigneur de Chambly et de Beaulac, military officer; born in Beauport, Canada, Nov. 19, 1778; served in the British army eleven years in the West Indies; was aide-de-camp to General de Rottenburg; was in Canada in 1812, where he organized the Voltigeurs, and repulsed Americans under Dearborn at La Salle in that year. On Oct. 28, 1813, he gained a decisive victory over Gen. Wade Hampton at Chateaugay, for which he was presented with a gold medal, the Order of the Bath, and the thanks of the Canadian legislature. He was afterwards Senator, and entered the legislative council as Monseigneur Plessis. He died in Chambly, Canada, Feb. 26, 1829.

Salary Grab, THE. The popular name of the law passed by Congress, March 4, 1873, to increase the salaries of Senators and Representatives from $5,000 to $7,500 per year. Although it was to go into force "on and after March 4, 1873," it was so worded as to include the members of Congress who passed it, and whose terms of office expired on that day. It was, therefore, so far as they were concerned, retroactive in its provisions, and gave to each of them $15,000 instead of $10,000 for his two years' services. The passage of the bill aroused a storm of indignation in all parts of the country, and all persons united in condemning the course of those who had supported it. Every act of Congress previously passed to increase the pay of its members had been in like manner retroactive in its operation, and had been regarded with similar but less intense disfavor. In this case, however, the feeling of popular indignation was such that the greater number of those who drew the increased salaries paid the excess back again into the United States treasury.

By act of the next Congress, Jan. 24, 1874, the law was repealed, except in so far as it concerned the salaries of the President and of the judges of the Supreme Court. The compensation of Senators and Representatives was, therefore, again fixed at $5,000 a year, and that of the Vice-President and of the cabinet officers at $8,000 a year; while the salary of the President remained at $50,000, that of the chief-justice at $10,500, and those of the

associate judges at $10,000 each. The Constitution of the United States provides that Congress shall determine the salaries of its own members. In accordance with this provision the first Congress passed an act (Sept. 24, 1789) fixing the compensation at $6 a day while in attendance, and $6 for each 20 miles of travel in going and coming. The speaker of the House was to have $12 a day. In 1866 the compensation of Senators and Representatives was increased to $5,000 a year, and mileage at the rate of 20 cents a mile going to and returning from each session. The pay of the speaker was made $8,000 a year, the same as the Vice-President's.

Salem, a city and the county seat of Essex county, Mass.; founded in 1626; incorporated as a city in 1836; noted for its historical associations, and its educational and scientific interests; population in 1910, 43,697. After the abandonment of Cape Ann there was a revival of zeal for colonization at Naumkeag (Salem), and John Endicott was chosen, by a new company of adventurers, to lead emigrants thither and be chief manager of the colony. A grant of land, its ocean line extending from 3 miles north of the Merrimac River to 3 miles south of the Charles River, and westward to the Pacific Ocean, was obtained from the council of New England, March 19, 1628, and in June John Endicott, one of the six patentees, sailed for Naumkeag, with a small party, as governor of the new settlement. Those who were there—the remains of Conant's settlers—were disposed to question the claims of the new-comers. An amicable settlement was made, and in commemoration of this adjustment Endicott named the place Salem, the Hebrew word for peaceful. The colony then comprised about sixty persons. Previous to this emigration about thirty persons, under Captain Wollaston, had set up an independent plantation at a place which they named Mount Wollaston (afterwards Quincy, Mass.), which soon fell under the control of a "pettifogger of Furnival's Inn," named Morton, who, being a convivial and licentious character, changed the name to Merry Mount, and conducted him-



A STREET IN SALEM.

self in a most shameless manner. He sold powder and shot to the Indians; gave refuge to runaway servants; and, setting up a May-pole, he and his companions

BIRTHPLACE OF ISRAEL PUTNAM AT SALEM

danced around it, sang ribald and obscene songs, broached a cask of wine and a hogshead of ale, and held a great revel and carousal there, to the great scandal of all the Puritan settlers. Morton was in England when Endicott came. The rigid Puritan, finding Merry Mount to be within the domain of the Massachusetts charter, proceeded to cut down the May-pole, and called the place Mount Dagon. He rebuked the settlers there, lectured them severely on the "folly of amusements," and warned them to "look there should be better walking." Morton was angry on his return, and defied the stout Puritan sentiments of his neighbors. Plymouth was called to interfere, and Captain Standish seized the bacchanalian ruler of Merry Mount and he was sent a prisoner to England.

Pursuant to the provisions of the Boston port bill, General Gage adjourned the Massachusetts Assembly, May 31, 1774, to Salem, June 7. Anticipating this, the patriots in the Assembly appointed Samuel Adams and James Warren to act in the interim. They held private conferences with others, and arranged plans for future action. They made arrangements for a Continental Congress; provided funds and munitions of war; prepared an address to other colonies inviting their co-operation in the measures of a general congress; and drew up a non-importation agreement. When the Assembly met on the 7th these various bold propositions were laid before it. The few partisans of the crown in the House were astonished and alarmed. Gage sent his secretary to dissolve the Assembly by proclamation, but the patriots were too vigilant for him. The hall doors were closed, and the key was in Samuel Adams's pocket. The reading of the proclamation on the stairs was unheeded by the patriots within. They adopted and signed a non-importation league, and copies of this and

their proposition for a general congress, at a time and place appointed, were sent to the other colonies. They chose Thomas Cushing (their speaker), and James Bowdoin, Samuel Adams, John Adams, and Robert Treat Paine as their delegates to the Continental Congress. This was the last session of the Massachusetts Assembly under a royal governor.

In February, 1775, Gage heard that some cannon had been deposited at Salem by the patriots, and on Sunday, the 26th, he sent Colonel Leslie, with 140 regular troops, in a vessel from Castle William to seize them. They landed at Marblehead and marched to Salem, but, not finding the cannon there, moved on towards Danvers. Reaching a drawbridge over a stream between the two towns, they found a large number of people assembled there, and on the opposite side forty militia under Col. Timothy Pickering. The bridge was drawn up. Leslie ordered it to be let down, but Pickering refused, declaring it to be private property. Leslie determined to ferry a few troops over in a gondola that lay near. Perceiving this, some of the militia instantly scuttled the vessel. The minister at Salem (Mr. Barnard), fearing instant hostilities, interfered, and succeeded in moderating the zeal of both parties. Leslie finally promised that if he might cross, he would go only a few rods beyond. The bridge was let down, the troops marched over and beyond a short distance, and then returned to their vessel at Marblehead without finding the cannon. See WITCHCRAFT, SALEM.

Salem, a city in Forsyth county, N. C., generally spoken of as the dual city of Salem-Winston. The Salem part of the twin cities was settled by Moravians in 1766; was the scene of several thrilling events in the Indian and Revolutionary wars; and was occupied by National and Confederate armies during the Civil War.

Salisbury (N. C.), a Confederate prison camp, captured April 12, 1865, by General Stoneman. Fourteen hundred National soldiers were freed, and an enormous quantity of stores was captured. See CONFEDERATE STATES (*Prisons*).

Salishan Indians. See FLATHEAD INDIANS.

Salm-Salm, PRINCE FELIX, military officer; born in Anhalt, Prussia, Dec. 25, 1828; educated in Berlin; made an officer in the Prussian cavalry; distinguished himself in the Schleswig-Holstein War; came to the United States in 1861; joined the National army as colonel and served throughout the Civil War; brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers, April 15, 1865; served in Mexico under Emperor Maximilian, to whom he was an aide-de-camp; and was captured at Queretaro. He returned to Europe after the execution of Maximilian; rejoined the Prussian army; and was killed in the battle of Gravelotte, near Metz, Alsace, Aug. 13, 1870.

His wife, AGNES LECLERCQ JOY, born in Swanton, Vt., in 1842; educated in Philadelphia, Pa.; married the prince Aug. 30, 1862; accompanied him through all his military campaigns in the South, where she performed useful service in field-hospitals. After the capture of her husband at Queretaro she rode to San Luis Potosi and vainly besought President Juarez to secure the freedom of Maximilian and her husband. She raised a hospital brigade with which she did much good in the Franco-Prussian War. She visited America in 1900 for the purpose of presenting the old battle-flags to the survivors of her husband's regiment, which had been in Sherman's great march to the sea.

Salomon, FREDERICK, military officer; born near Halberstadt, Prussia, April 7, 1826; became government surveyor and later lieutenant of artillery; emigrated to the United States and settled in Manitowoc, Wis., as a surveyor; was chief engineer of the Manitowoc and Wisconsin Railroad in 1857–59; served through the Civil War, entering the volunteer service as captain of the 5th Missouri Infantry and rising to the rank of brigadier-general, June 16, 1862; was brevetted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865; mustered out of the service Aug. 25 following, and for several years thereafter was surveyor-general of Utah.

Salomon, HAYM, financier; born in Lissa, Prussian Poland, about 1740; came to the United States several years before the Revolutionary War, and settled in Philadelphia, Pa., as a merchant and banker; acquired a large fortune, which the United States government had the use of during the war. He acted as paymaster-general of the French forces in the

United States; and loaned money to the agents or ministers of foreign states and to the United States government, a large part of which was never repaid. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1785.

Salt Lake City, capital of the State of Utah and county-seat of Salt Lake county. Population (1910), 92,777. The city is one of the wonders of United States history. It is in mid-continent; was founded by the Mormons in 1847, after their exodus from the Mississippi region; is at the western base of the Wasatch range of mountains, 4,334 feet above the sea; and near a great salt lake. Its streets are regularly laid out, 125 feet in width, and the city covers a vast space in proportion to the number of its inhabitants. It originally had 260 blocks, each an eighth of a mile square, and containing ten acres. Each block was divided into eight lots, ten by twenty rods, and contained an acre and a quarter. Since the city was laid out, several of the blocks have been intersected by new streets. There the Mormons built their greatest tabernacle, capable of seating 8,000 persons, covered by a self-supporting roof, and also a vast temple constructed of grayish-white granite, at a cost of nearly $12,000,000. It was dedicated April 6, 1893, forty years after it was begun. There are numerous churches, but the larger number are Mormon. Their houses in the old days of polygamy were built with separate entrances when the owners had several wives. There are many church schools maintained by the Mormons, besides academies, supported by various Christian sects. See MORMONS; UTAH.

A VIEW OF SALT LAKE CITY.

Salt Water Indians. See MICMAC INDIANS.

Salter, WILLIAM, clergyman; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., Nov. 17, 1821; graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1840; ordained in the Congregational Church; was pastor of the Congregational church at Burlington, Ia., for more than fifty years from 1846. His publications include *Life of Henry Dodge from 1782 to 1867; Memoirs of Augustus C. Dodge, United States Senator from Iowa; Life of James W. Grimes; Memoirs of Joseph W. Pickett; Iowa, 1673–1846;* numerous articles on the history of Iowa in the *Annals of Iowa,* and the *Iowa Historical Record.*

Salton Lake, a body of water that appeared unexpectedly in a depression 287 feet below sea-level in the Colorado Desert in California, in the summer of 1891, caused by an overflow of the Colorado River. The water soon disappeared, but through the breaking of the dams in the Imperial Canal, which drew its supplies from the Colorado, other and more disastrous overflows occurred, until the entire Colorado River emptied into the valley. After spending millions the Colorado was forced, in 1906, to take its old channel.

Saltonstall, DUDLEY, naval officer; born in New London, Conn., Sept. 8, 1738; nephew of Gurdon Saltonstall; appointed captain in the navy by the Continental Congress; commanded the fleet at the unsuccessful attempt on the British post on the Penobscot in 1779. He died in the West Indies in 1796.

Saltonstall, GURDON, clergyman; born in Haverville, Mass., March 27, 1666; great-grandson of Sir Richard Saltonstall; was graduated at Harvard College in 1684; ordained in New London, Conn., in 1691; and was distinguished as an orator. He became influential in politics, and in 1707 was made governor of Connecticut, which post he held till his death in New London, Sept. 20, 1724.

Saltonstall, SIR RICHARD, colonist; born in Halifax, England, in 1586. He, with others, signed an agreement, Aug. 26, 1629, to settle permanently in New England, provided that the government be transferred to them and the other colonists. He arrived June 22, 1630, and returned to England in 1631, but continued his interest in the colony. He died in England, about 1658.

Salt River, an imaginary river up which defeated candidates for office in the United States are said to row.

Salutes. A salute with cannon is a certain number of guns fired in succession with blank cartridges, in honor of a person, to celebrate an event, or to show respect to the flag of a country.

The national salute, which is fired at noon, July 4, at each military post or camp provided with artillery, is one gun for each State in the Union.

The salute to a national flag or international salute is twenty-one guns. The international salute is the only one that is returned.

The following are the personal salutes:

To the President of the United States (given on both arrival at and departure from a military post, or when passing the vicinity; no other personal salute is fired in his presence), twenty-one guns.

To the Vice-President of the United States and the president of the Senate, nineteen guns.

To members of the cabinet, chief-justice of the United States, speaker of the House of Representatives, governors (within their respective States or Territories), seventeen guns.

To a committee of Congress, officially visiting a military post or station, seventeen guns.

To a general-in-chief, field-marshal, or admiral, seventeen guns.

To a lieutenant-general or vice-admiral, fifteen guns.

To a major-general or rear-admiral, thirteen guns.

To a brigadier-general or commodore, eleven guns.

To officers of marines, volunteer forces, and militia when in the service of the United States, a salute according to rank.

Commanders of divisions, of squadrons of divisions, of a senior officer present, and the narrow pennant of other officers, no salute; but when these officers salute an officer of superior rank, they are to receive, if a captain, a return salute of nine guns; if a less rank, seven guns. Return salutes of officers holding equal rank, gun for gun. No vessel mounting less than six guns allowed to salute.

(An officer assigned to duty, according to brevet rank, is entitled to the salute prescribed for the grade to which assigned.)

When several persons, each of whom is entitled to a salute, arrive together at a post, the one highest in rank or position is alone saluted; if they arrive successively each is saluted in turn. As a rule a personal salute is fired when the personage entitled to it enters the port or station.

To the sovereign or chief magistrate of any foreign country, twenty-one guns.

To members of the royal family—namely, the heir-apparent and consort of the reigning sovereign of a foreign country, twenty-one guns.

To the viceroy, governor-general, or governors of provinces belonging to foreign states, seventeen guns.

To ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary, seventeen guns.

To envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary, fifteen guns.

To ministers resident, accredited to the United States, thirteen guns.

To *chargés d'affaires,* or subordinate diplomatic agents left in charge of missions in the United States, eleven guns.

To consuls-general, accredited to the United States, nine guns.

To officers of foreign services, visiting any military post or station (provided with artillery), in accordance with their rank.

Salvation Army, a quasi-military organization for mission work, using, as special means, a uniform, out-door processions, with banners and music, and religious talks in the streets, public halls, theatres, etc. The army is an outgrowth of the East London Christian Revival Society, or, as afterwards called, the "Christian Mission," established in London by Rev. William Booth, in 1865. Its aims are: First, to go to the people with the message of salvation; second, to attract the people; third, to save the people; fourth, to employ the people in salvation work. Their motto is "Blood and Fire." It publishes many weekly newspapers and monthly magazines.

William Booth holds his first open-air meeting at the Mile End Waste, London, from which his hearers "procession" to a large tent near Baker's Row, Whitechapel.....July 5,	1865
Work of the Christian Mission first introduced temporarily in the United States, at Cleveland, O., by a London cabinet-maker.....	1872
War Cry, a weekly newspaper, first issued	1879
Salvation Army corps established in Philadelphia, by the family of Mr. Shirley, from Coventry, England.....	1879
Meeting held in Castle Garden, New York, and at "Harry Hill's," by Commissioner Roilton, and seven hallelujah lasses sent over from England (the first uniformed corps sent out)	1880
First American headquarters opened in Philadelphia	1880
First Rescue-home in England begun under the direction of Bramwell Booth	1884
General Booth publishes his book, *In Darkest England, and the Way Out.* Oct.,	1884
Continental congress of Salvation Army of the United States begins its session in New York City.....Nov. 21,	1884
Ballington Booth appointed commander in the United States.....	1887
Ballington Booth resigns and organizes the "Volunteers of America".....	1896

Salvert, PÉRIER DU, colonial governor; born in France about 1690; entered the French navy, in which service he became an officer; was appointed governor of Louisiana in 1724. His administration was marked by inefficiency. On Nov. 29, 1729, the Natchez Indians, after being exasperated by evil persons, massacred all the male inhabitants in their country. Later Périer endeavored to restore the French prestige by sending against the Natchez an expedition of 1,000 men, who took several hundred prisoners and sent them to Santo Domingo, where they were sold as slaves. Salvert returned to France in 1733.

Salzburgers, the colony of seventy-eight persons, representing forty-two families, who, under persecution, left their homes in the archbishopric of Salzburg, Bavaria; arrived in Savannah, Ga., in March, 1734, and under the direction of Oglethorpe located "about 30 miles in the interior." See GEORGIA; OGLETHORPE, JAMES EDWARD.

Sam Adams Regiments, the name applied by Lord North to the 14th and 29th regiments of British soldiers, which had been stationed in Boston for more than a year when the massacre of 1770 occurred, in which CRISPUS ATTUCKS (see BOSTON), among others, was killed. A formal demand for the immediate removal of these troops from the city was made on Governor Hutchinson by a committee of which Samuel Adams was chairman. The British authorities proposed to compromise the trouble by sending away the 29th Regiment, but Adams insisted on both regiments or none. He stirred up such a commotion in the streets of the city that both regiments were ordered away within a few hours.

Samana Bay. See SANTO DOMINGO.

Samar, an island of the Visayan group of the Philippine Islands. It is the most eastern of the group; is about 250 miles southeast of the island of Luzon; has an area of 56,000 square miles, and a population (1903) of 266,237, of whom only 688 were classed as wild or uncivilized natives, living chiefly in the mountains. The island is traversed by mountain ranges; it is without established roads, and the only means of communication between its various parts are the trails laid out by the American troops under General Hughes. On Sept. 28, 1901, there was a sudden rising of the natives, who had been friendly

to the Americans, and attacked Company C, 9th United States Infantry, near Balangiga. The natives surprised the troops while the latter were at breakfast, fought them with bollos, captured all the stores and ammunitions of the company and nearly all the rifles, and killed forty-eight members of the company. The last previous intelligence from Samar was under date of July 27, 1901, which noted the surrender of 500 natives, with two field-guns, twenty rifles, and seventy bollos to the Americans.

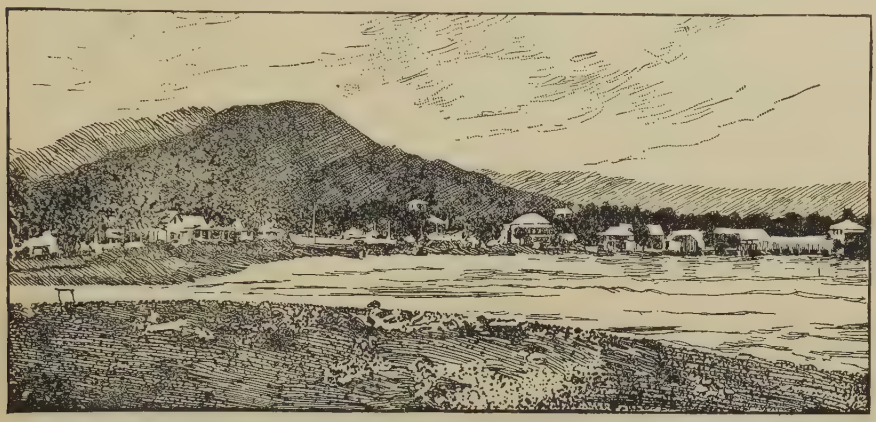
Samoan, Navigator, Islands, formerly known as **Navigator, Islands,** a group of twelve islands in the Southern Pacific Ocean. They are located about 2,000 miles south and 300 miles west of the Hawaiian Islands and fourteen degrees south of the equator. They lie in an almost direct line between San Francisco and Australia and slightly south of the direct steamship line connecting the Philippines with the proposed Panama or Nicaraguan interoceanic canals. Their especial importance, therefore, lies more in their position as coaling and repair stations on these great highways of commerce rather than in their direct commercial value, their population being small and their imports and exports of comparatively little importance.

A NATIVE VILLAGE, SAMOA.

The group consists of ten inhabited and two uninhabited islands, with an area of 1,700 square miles and an aggregate population, according to latest estimates, of 36,000 people, of which something over 200 are British subjects, 125 Germans, 25 Americans, 25 French, and 25 of other nationalities, while the remainder are natives of the Polynesian race. The bulk of the population is located in the three islands of Upolu, Savaii, and Tutuila, the number in the latter, which belongs to the United States, being about 5,800. The islands are of volcanic origin, but fertile, producing cocoa-nuts, cotton, sugar, and coffee, the most important, however, being cocoa-nuts, from which the copra of commerce is obtained by drying the kernel of the cocoa-nut, the copra, which is exported to Europe and the United States, being used in the manufacture of cocoa-nut oil. The exportation of copra from the islands in 1896 amounted to 12,565,909 lbs., valued at $231,372. A considerable proportion of this was exported to the United States, a larger proportion, however, to Germany, whose citizens control its commerce through a trading company which has long been established there. The cocoa-nut and copra productions, however, vary greatly from year to year, owing to the fact that many of the cocoa-nut trees have been destroyed in recent wars between native factions, a single individual being able, by cutting out the crown of the tree, to permanently destroy in two minutes' time the fruit-bearing qualities of trees which require several years for their growth.

The government of the Samoan Islands had been from time immemorial under the two royal houses of Malietoa and Tupea, except on the island of Tutuila, which was governed by native chiefs. In 1873, at the suggestion of foreign residents, a house of nobles and a house of

representatives were established, with Malietoa, Laupepa, and the chief of the royal house of Tupea as joint kings. Subsequently Malietoa became sole king. In



APIA, CAPITAL OF SAMOA.

1887 he was deposed by the German government upon the claim of unjust treatment of German subjects, who formed the bulk of the foreign population on the island, and was deported first to German New Guinea and then to the Cameroons, in Africa, and finally in 1888 to Hamburg, Tamasese, a native chief, being meantime proclaimed by the Germans as king, though against the protest of the British and American consuls at Samoa. Mataafa, a near relative of Malietoa, made war upon Tamasese and succeeded to the kingship.

In 1889 a conference between the representatives of the American, British, and German governments was held at Berlin, at which a treaty was signed by the three powers guaranteeing the neutrality of the islands, in which the citizens of the three signatory powers would have equal rights of residence, trade, and personal protection. They agreed to recognize the independence of the Samoan government and the free rights of the natives to elect their chief or king and choose a form of government according to their own laws and customs. A supreme court was established, consisting of one judge styled the chief-justice of Samoa. To this court were referred: First, all civil suits concerning real property situated in Samoa: second, all civil suits between natives and foreigners or between foreigners of different nationalities; third, all crimes committed by natives against foreigners or committed by such foreigners as are not subject to any consular jurisdiction.

The future alienation of lands was prohibited, with certain specified exemptions. The capital was located at Apia, the chief town of the group of islands, and a local administration provided for the municipal district of Apia. A commission was appointed to investigate titles to land alleged to have been purchased from the natives, and this in 1894 completed its labors, confirming about 75,000 acres of land to Germans, 36,000 to British, and 21,000 to Americans, though much of this land has since changed hands. Malietoa, who had been deported, was restored as king in November, 1889, and continued as such until his death, which occurred Aug. 22, 1898, when the consuls of the three powers, with the chief-justice as president, took charge of the administration pending the election of a successor. Out of the election and recognition of this successor to King Malietoa, deceased, serious disagreements between the local representatives of the three governments maintaining the joint protectorate over the islands occurred. These were followed in 1899 by a new agreement between the three nations, which has been been described as follows:

The treaty bears date at Washington, Dec. 2, 1899, and after reciting its purpose to be to adjust amicably questions between the three powers in respect to the Samoan group, and to avoid future misunderstandings, proceeds textually as follows:

Article I. The general act concluded and signed by the aforesaid powers at Berlin on the 14th day of June, A.D. 1899, and all previous treaties, conventions, and agreements relating to Samoa are annulled.

Art. II. Germany renounces in favor of the United States of America all her rights and claims over and in respect to the island of Tutuila and all other islands of the Samoan group east of long. 171 deg. W. of Greenwich. Great Britain in like manner renounces in favor of the United States of America all her rights and claim over and in respect to the island of Tutuila and all other islands of the Samoan group east of long. 171 deg. W. of Greenwich. Reciprocally, the United States of America renounces in favor of Germany all their rights and claims over and in respect to the islands of Upolou and Savaii, and all other islands of the Samoan group west of long. 171 deg. W. of Greenwich.

Art. III. It is understood and agreed that each of the three signatory powers shall continue to enjoy in respect to their commerce and commercial vessels in all the islands of the Samoan group privileges and conditions equal to those enjoyed by the sovereign power in all ports which may be open to the commerce of either of them.

Art. IV. The present convention shall be ratified as soon as possible and shall come into force immediately after the exchange of ratifications.

A separate treaty was negotiated to cover the provisions for the settlement of claims in Samoa. It sets forth that the three governments are "desirous of effecting a prompt and satisfactory settlement of the claims of the citizens and subjects of their respective countries resident in the Samoan Islands on account of recent military operations conducted there, and have concluded a convention for the accomplishment of this end by arbitration."

The King of Sweden and Norway is made arbitrator, and he is not only to determine the amount of claims, but is to decide to "what extent either of the three governments is bound, alone or jointly with the others, to make good these losses."

The nature of the claims to be adjusted is set forth in Article I. of this treaty, as follows:

"All claims put forward by American citizens or German or British subjects, respectively, whether individuals or companies, for compensation on account of losses which they allege that they have suffered in consequence of unwarranted military action, if this be shown to have occurred, on the part of Americans, German or British officers, between the 1st of January last and the arrival of the joint commission in Samoa, shall be decided by arbitration in conformity with the principles of international law or considerations of equity."

There is also a provision to the effect that "either of the three governments named, with the consent of the others, previously obtained in every case, submit to the King for arbitration similar claims of persons, not being natives, who are under the protection of that government and who are not included in the above-mentioned categories."

The agreement provides for the exchange of ratifications four months from the date of its signature, which is the 7th of November last, or earlier if possible.

Island of Tutuila and Pago-Pago Harbor.—The harbor of Pago-Pago, in the island of Tutuila, the southernmost of the group, was ceded to the United States for a naval and coaling station, first in 1872, and afterwards confirmed by a treaty signed in Washington, Jan. 17, 1878, and ratifications exchanged on Feb. 13 of the same year, by which the United States was given the right to establish at that harbor a station for coaling, naval supplies, freedom of trade, commercial treatment as a favored nation, and extra-territorial consular jurisdiction. This harbor was occupied by the United States in 1898, with the purpose of utilizing its advantages as a coaling and supply station. Tutuila, the island upon whose coast this harbor is located, has a population of 5,800 and an area of 54 square miles, while Upolu has an area of 340 square miles, and Savaii 659 square miles. By the above agreement the German and British governments withdrew their claims to this island in favor of the United States. See APIA.

Samoset, chief of the Pemaquid Indians; born in New England about 1590. In March, 1621, a naked Indian, who had learned a few words of English from the fishermen at Pemaquid, suddenly appeared in the streets of Plymouth, Mass., and startled the Pilgrims by the exclamation, "Welcome, Englishmen! Welcome, Englishmen!" He was Samoset, and gave them much information. He told them of the plague that had swept off the Indians about four years before, and that the place where they were seated was called Patuxet. He told them of MASSASOIT (*q. v.*). He brought to the settlement some of the friendly Indians, among them Squanto, whom Weymouth had kidnapped

and given to Gorges. Squanto taught them how to plant maize, to catch a certain fish wherewith to manure their lands, and late in the season he guided ambassadors from Plymouth to the court of Massasoit at Pokanoket, afterwards Warren, R. I.

Sampson, DEBORAH, heroine; born in Plympton, Mass., Dec. 17, 1760; was moved by patriotic feeling to disguise her sex and enter the Continental army when less than eighteen years old. Under the name of Robert Shurtleff she joined the 4th Massachusetts Regiment and served for three years in the ranks; received a sabre-cut in the temple in an action near Tarrytown; and soon afterwards was shot in the shoulder. During the campaign around Yorktown she had an attack of brain fever, and was taken to a hospital in Philadelphia, where her sex was discovered. Upon her recovery she was sent to Washington, who gave her an honorable discharge, some advice, and a purse of money. After the war she was invited to the capital, and Congress voted her a grant of lands and a pension. She wrote an autobiography entitled *The Female Review.* She died in Sharon, Mass., April 29, 1827.

SAMOSET IN THE STREETS OF PLYMOUTH.

Sampson, EZRA, clergyman; born in Middleboro, Mass., Feb. 12, 1749; graduated at Yale College in 1773; settled in Plympton, Mass., in 1775; was chaplain in the American camp at Roxbury, and by his patriotic speeches greatly encouraged the soldiers. His publications include *Sermon Before Colonel Cotton's Regiment; Thanksgiving Discourse; The Sham Patriot Unmasked; Historical Dictionary,* etc. He died in New York City, Dec. 12, 1823.

Sampson, WILLIAM, author; born in Londonderry, Ireland, Jan. 17, 1764; studied at Dublin University and became a lawyer; later settled in New York City. His writings were largely instrumental in leading to the consolidation and important amending of the laws of New York State. His publications include *Memoirs of William Sampson; Catholic Question in America; Discourse Before the New York Historical Society on the Common Law; Discourse and Correspondence with Learned Jesuits upon the History of the Law; History of Ireland,* etc. He died in New York City, Dec. 27, 1836.

Sampson, WILLIAM THOMAS, naval officer; born in Palmyra, N. Y., Feb. 9, 1840; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1860; promoted master in 1861; lieutenant in 1862; lieutenant-commander in 1866; commander in 1874; captain in 1889; and was superintendent of the Naval Academy in 1886–90. In the Civil War he was serving as executive officer of the iron-clad *Patapsco* when that vessel was destroyed by a mine in Charleston Harbor. He was blown into the water, but was soon rescued. In the latter part of February, 1898, he was made president of the board of inquiry on the destruction of the United States battle-ship *Maine* in Havana Harbor (see CUBA). After war was declared against Spain he was appointed acting rear-admiral by the President, and placed in command of the North Atlantic Squadron over the heads of ten officers his seniors in rank. He was ordered to blockade Havana, April 21, 1898. With a portion of his fleet he bombarded the fortifications at San Juan, Porto Rico, May 12. He then placed the strongest part of his squadron off the southern shore of Cuba. On May 19, after eluding the American ships, Admiral Cervera entered the harbor of Santiago with his fleet. On May 31, Sampson bombarded the fortifications at the entrance of Santiago harbor, and on June 9 seized Guantanamo Bay and made it a base of supplies.

WILLIAM THOMAS SAMPSON.

On the morning of July 3, when Admiral Cervera attempted to escape from Santiago Harbor, Rear-Admiral Sampson, with the flag-ship *New York*, was about 7 miles from the entrance to Santiago Harbor, returning from Siboney, whither he had gone for a conference with General Shafter. In the absence of Rear-Admiral Sampson the command of the American fleet devolved on Rear-Admiral Schley. The battle which resulted in the destruction of Admiral Cervera's fleet was fought on plans formulated by Rear-Admiral Sampson, who was unable to reach the scene of the fight before the great American victory had been secured. For his services during the war he received the thanks of the President.

After the close of the war an unfortunate controversy arose between the friends of Rear-Admirals Sampson and Schley. This extended into the Congress and prevented the carrying out the wishes of President McKinley for the suitable recognition by promotions of the principal participants in the victory. An attempt was made to revive the grade of vice-admiral and to authorize the President to appoint both Sampson and Schley to that grade, but this measure also failed to pass in Congress.

After the close of the hostilities Rear-Admiral Sampson was appointed one of the three American commissioners to arrange for the evacuation of Cuba. He then resumed active command of the North Atlantic Station till Oct. 14, 1899, when he was appointed commandant of the navy-yard at Boston. He died in Washington, D. C., May 6, 1902. See SCHLEY, W. S.; SANTIAGO, BATTLE OF.

Samuels, SAMUEL, seaman; born in Philadelphia, Pa., March 14, 1823; went to sea when eleven years old as cabin-boy, and advanced to merchant captain when twenty-one years old; commanded the *Dreadnaught* for several years; captain of the United States steamship *John Rice* in 1863–64; general superintendent of the quartermaster's department in New York City in 1864; commanded the *McClellan* at the taking of Fort Fisher in 1865; captain of the *Fulton* in 1866; the *Henrietta* yacht in her race from New York to Southampton; the *Dauntless* in her race with the *Cambria* from Queenstown to New York in 1870, and with the *Comet* in 1877. He organized the Samana Bay Company of Santo Domingo in 1872; and later was

at the head of several large business enterprises. Captain Samuels published a narrative of his early life under the title of *From Forecastle to Cabin*. He died May 18, 1908.

San Antonio, Tex., on the San Pedro and San Antonio rivers. It is the headquarters of the United States Military Department of Texas, the government post, Fort Sam Houston, covering nearly 600 acres. Since its settlement in 1673 it has belonged to seven governments, and eight battles were fought on its soil for the independence of Texas. In 1714 the Spanish constructed Fort San Fernando on the right bank of the San Pedro, and four years later the Alamo mission was founded, but afterwards both were removed to the site of San Antonio. During the Spanish and Mexican régimes San Antonio was the capital of Texas. In 1836 the massacre of the Alamo occurred. See ALAMO, FORT.

The city was the scene of one of three parts of a general engagement fought on Aug. 20, 1847, between the Mexican and American troops, the others being known as the battles of Contreras and Churubusco (see MEXICO, WAR WITH). In 1861 Maj.-Gen. Twiggs, commander of the United States forces here, surrendered to the State authorities; in 1873 the city received a new charter; and in 1911 Fort Sam Houston was the headquarters of the army mobilized on and near the Rio Grande during the revolution in Mexico. Pop. (1900), 53,321; (1910) 96,614.

San Diego, a city and county-seat of San Diego county, Cal.; on San Diego Bay, which gives it importance as a port of entry, and ranks as the second bay on the Pacific coast for commercial purposes, San Francisco being the first. Cabrillo discovered the bay in 1542, and Father Junipero Serra made the first settlement here when, in 1769, he established the mission of San Diego. The city was laid out on a magnificent waterfront in 1867, and held a Panama Canal exposition in 1915. Pop. (1900) 17,700; (1910) 39,578.

San Domingo. See SANTO DOMINGO.

SAN FRANCISCO

San Francisco, city, port of entry, and trade and financial metropolis of the North American Pacific coast; co-extensive with San Francisco county, California; ranking seventh in bank clearings (1910), and eleventh in population according to the federal census; popularly known as the "Golden City" and as the "City of One Hundred Hills."

Location, Area, etc.—It is situated on the northern extremity of a peninsula thirty miles long, between the Pacific Ocean and the Bay of San Francisco, one of the grandest harbors in the world, which, with its branches, covers an area of over 600 square miles and is entered by the Golden Gate, a magnificent strait one and one-eighth miles wide and two and three-quarters miles long. The city has an area of about forty-six and a half square miles, lies at the base of high hills, and has within its limits or immediate vicinity a large number of elevations, whence one of its popular names is derived.

When first settled the site was far more hilly than at present. A number of the hills have been cut down, the long stretches of sand dunes in what is now the southern part of the city have been levelled and the intervening gullies and hollows filled in, and a considerable area has been reclaimed from the water and improved in harmony with the general street system. The highest elevations are Mission Peaks, 925 feet; Reservoir Hill, 920 feet; Russian Hill, on the west side, 360 feet; Telegraph Hill, in the northeast corner, 300 feet; Rincon Hill, in the southeast corner, 120 feet; California Street, locally known as Nob Hill, Clay Street, Pine Street, Webster Street, and Strawberry Hills; and Ashbury and Sutro Heights.

Market Street, which runs about northeast and southwest, divides the two main systems of streets; the others cross at right angles, and are numbered from the water-front westward, or from Market Street, one hundred numbers being assigned to each block, as in Philadelphia. Although there are several lines of electric street railway, the principal means of

communication, because of the great irregularity of the surface, are cable roads, Market Street being the centre of a system, all the branches of which converge on it and have a common terminus at the ferries at its foot. Retail trade is largely established on Market and Kearny streets; banking and insurance on Montgomery, California, and Pine; importing and jobbing on Front, Sansome, Montgomery, Battery, and a part of Market; and the most costly mansions—Hopkins, Crocker, Flood, Stanford, Huntington, Tevis, and Spreckels—on California and Taylor streets and Van Ness and Pacific avenues.

Public Interests.—On Sept. 29, 1903, the city voted to issue $17,771,000 public improvement bonds, and in the following year this amount was reduced to $17,174,000 by a court decision. The issues were to be periodical as required, and to be applied as follows: Hospital, $1,000,000; sewers, $7,250,000; public schools, $3,595,000; streets, $1,621,000; jails, $697,000; library site and building, $1,647,000; Golden Gate Park and Presidio extension, $330,000; children's playgrounds, $741,000; and Mission Park, $293,000. The Association for the Improvement and Adornment of San Francisco made a contract with Daniel H. Burnham, the distinguished architect of Chicago, to plan a comprehensive system for beautifying the city, and projected a civic centre, as a part of the general scheme, where the most if not all of the proposed large public buildings were to be grouped. (See paragraphs on the great disaster in 1906 in *History.*)

In 1910 there were 825 miles of streets, of which 327 were paved; 449 miles of sewers; a private water-works plant, which had 458 miles of mains and a daily capacity of 35,000,000 gallons, and cost $45,500,000; a police department of 892 men, which cost annually about $1,336,000; and a fire department of 768 men, costing about $1,262,500. The assessed

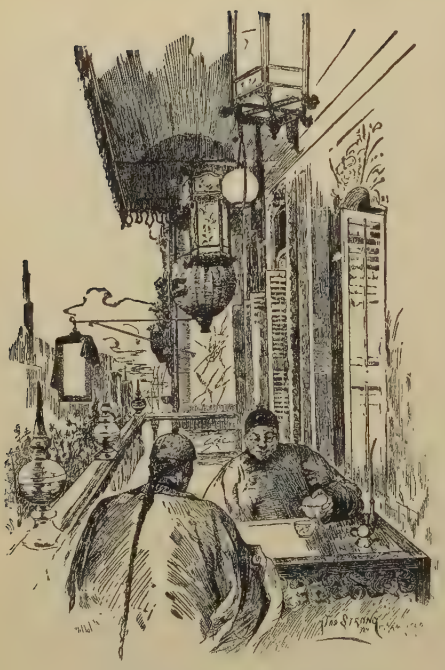
THE GOLDEN GATE, SAN FRANCISCO.

valuations of taxable property for 1910–11 were: real estate, $433,263,243; personal, $81,763,921—total, $515,027,164; and the tax rate was $20.00 per $1,000. The county and city owned property valued at $34,433,890, of which $14,115,300 was represented by parks, squares, and reservations, and $8,290,750 by public-school property. The old debt matured April 1, 1904, and that of Oct. 1, 1910, consisted of issues of bonds amounting to $16,314,500. The amount of taxes levied in 1910–11 for city and county purposes was $8,482,497; for State purposes, $1,818,046—total, $10,300,543.

SAN FRANCISCO FROM THE BAY.

Commerce and Trade.—San Francisco is the trade and wholesale centre for the Pacific coast, Alaska, and Hawaii, and has a large foreign trade with Central and South America, China, Japan, Australia, Siberia, and the Philippine, Caroline, Ladrone, and Oceanic islands. In the calendar year 1910 the imports of merchandise had a value of $50,649,435; of gold and silver ore, bullion, and coin, $6,452,607—total, $57,102,042; and exports of merchandise, $36,413,739; of gold, etc., $9,457,967—total, $45,871,706, making a total foreign trade of $102,973,748.

Manufactures.—According to the United States census of 1905, San Francisco had 2,251 manufacturing and mechanical industries belonging to the factory-system classification, which were operated on a total capital of $102,362,378; employed 38,429 wage-earners; paid for wages $25,015,427, and for materials used in manufacturing $75,945,898; and had a combined product valued at $137,788,233. The principal industries, with the value of their output, were foundry and machine-shop products, $8,991,449; wholesale slaughter-



IN THE CHINESE QUARTER, SAN FRANCISCO.

ing, excluding meat-packing, $6,694,467; printing and publishing, newspapers and periodicals, $5,575,035; bread and bakery products, $4,882,199; fruit and vegetable preserving and canning, $4,151,414; malt liquors, $4,106,034; coffee and spice roasting and grinding, $3,979,865; book and job printing, $3,849,459; and flour and grist mill products, $3,422,672. Here are located the famous Union Works, where were built the battle-ships *Oregon* and *Ohio*, the monitor *Monterey*, and the cruisers *Olympia*, *San Francisco*, and *Charleston*. The *Olympia* was Admiral Dewey's flag-ship at Manila, and the *Oregon* made a record trip from San Francisco to Key West in time to take part in the destruction of the Spanish fleet at Santiago.

Banks.—At the end of the banking year 1910 there were ten national banks in the city, having a combined capital of $27,250,000; surplus, $15,630,000; circulation, $18,630,345; individual deposits, $82,478,735; and total resources, $208,807,484. In 1900 this class of banks numbered four, and had $6,000,000 capital; $2,475,000 surplus; $1,748,850 circulation; $16,127,776 deposits; and $34,838,443 resources. In the period 1900–1910 the city dropped from sixth to seventh rank among clearing-house cities. The exchanges in the former year aggregated $1,017,115,942, an increase in a year of $102,264,258, and in the latter year, $2,268,678,000, an increase of $360,632,700 in a year. The State commercial banks and loan and trust companies reported for 1910, capital, surplus, and undivided profits aggregating $15,024,293; loans, $31,339,587; and individual deposits, $36,608,947; and the savings-banks, capital, surplus, and profits, $15,395,860; individual deposits, $159,866,419; and resources, $175,596,447. The relative banking power of the San Francisco metropolitan area, which, in addition to San Francisco, includes Oakland, Berkeley, Alameda, and South San Francisco, was, for all national, State, and savings-banks; capital, surplus, and profits, $85,765,572; individual deposits, $287,775,650; and resources, $442,264,874.

Churches.—According to a special report of the federal Bureau of the Census on *Religious Bodies* (1910), the city had 181 different religious organizations, with 151 church edifices; 24 halls used for religious purposes; 142,919 communicants or members; church property, of 154 organizations, valued at $6,953,947; and 166 Sunday-schools, with 2,171 officers and teachers and 28,318 scholars. The Roman Catholic Church was the strongest numerically, reporting 115,921 members, and the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America was the strongest Protestant body, 3,272. The first house of worship erected in the State was the First Baptist Church of San Francisco, built in the summer of 1849, a rough "shack" that cost $6,000 in gold. The Episcopalians came next, with a "shack" that cost $8,000, and within a year there were nine Protestant churches in the city. San Francisco is the seat of a Roman Catholic archbishop and an auxiliary bishop, of a Protestant Episcopal bishop, and of a Methodist Episcopal bishop.

Schools and Colleges.—In 1910 the school population numbered 88,058, of whom 50,212 were attending the public schools and 12,382 private and parochial

schools. The annual cost of the public-school system is about $1,748,000. Public secondary instruction is given in the Girls', Lowell, Mission, and Polytechnic high schools, and the principal private secondary schools are the Academy of the Sacred Heart, College of Notre Dame, Our Lady of Mercy's Academy, Presentation Convent, Sacred Heart College, St. Brigid's School, St. Patrick's Academy, St. Peter's Academy, St. Vincent's School (all Roman Catholic), Hamlin School, Irving Institute (P. E.), Murison School, and Trinity School.

St. Ignatius's College is the only institution for higher education in the city, but there are near by the University of California, in Berkeley; Leland Stanford, Jr., University, in Palo Alto; and California College, in Oakland. The professional schools include the Hastings College of Law of the University of California, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Cooper Medical College, Medical Department of the University of California, Hahneman Medical College of the Pacific, California Medical College, San Francisco Dental College, dental schools of the College of Physicians and Surgeons and the University of California, colleges of pharmacy of the two preceding institutions, and ten training schools for nurses. For technical instruction there are the Polytechnic High School, California School of Mechanical Arts, Cogswell Polytechnic College, Mechanics' Institute, and the Wilmerding School of Industrial Arts.

Charities.—The benevolent activities include a large number of hospitals, notably the United States Marine, on the Presidio Reservation, the City and County, French, Lane, Pacific, St. Luke's, St. Mary's, State Woman's, and Children's, and the Homœopathic and Waldeck sanitariums. The city has a public day school for the deaf; and at Berkeley, eight miles distant, is a State Asylum for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind. Orphanages include the Protestant Orphan Asylum, Maria Kip Orphanage, and the Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum. There is an asylum for the insane in Alameda Park.

Parks, Squares, etc.—Although possessing a goodly number of attractive parks, the city considers itself only in the formative stage of this feature of municipal adornment, and plans inaugurated since the earthquake and fire will give it an exceptionally fine system of public recreation-grounds connected by boulevards of rich natural and artificial beauty. At the head of the present system is the famous Golden Gate Park, extending from Stanyan Street to the ocean, comprising more than 1,000 acres, and costing within a few years upward of $2,000,000 for development. It was here that the unique Midwinter Exposition of 1894 was held. The park contains a magnificent conservatory, Memorial Museum and Art Gallery, Children's Play-house and Grounds, ornate music-stand, Japanese tea-garden, zoological preserve, Garfield monument, a statue of Francis Scott Key, author of "The Star-Spangled Banner," and the "Prayer-book Cross," commemorating the arrival of Sir Francis Drake in the bay and the first Church of England service on the shore in 1578. In a small park separating Chinatown from Kearney Street is a beautiful monument to Robert Louis Stevenson, a golden galleon, while in Union Square is a monument commemorating the achievements of the American navy in the Spanish War of 1898. Among the other parks are the Franklin, Portsmouth, Garfield, Alamo, Jackson, and Buena Vista. The principal squares are the Adams, Jackson, Lafayette, Lobos, Washington, Union, Columbia, Harrison, and the Alta Plaza.

At Point Lobos, or the South Head, at the entrance of the Golden Gate, are the Cliff House, Seal Rocks, and Sutro Heights, important scenic attractions; and fronting on the Golden Gate, for two miles on each side of Fort Point, is the Presidio Reservation, belonging to the federal government, and having several miles of beautiful drives, besides all the features of a large military post. The atmosphere is so clear that the Farallone Islands, thirty-five miles distant, may be clearly discerned from Telegraph Hill, as well as Monte Diablo, Tamelpas, the Two Sisters, the Two Brothers, and the Point Bonita lighthouse.

History.—On June 17, 1776, Francisco Palon and Benito Cambon, two friars, left Monterey with seven civilians and seventeen dragoons, with their families, and ten days afterwards reached the lo-

cality where, on Oct. 8, they established the Spanish mission of San Francisco. This mission was remarkably successful from the start, and by 1825 was widely known for its wealth. Several others were started from it, and all prospered till 1834, when the Mexican authorities seized them and placed them under civil administration. The first mission was the Mission Dolores, previously mentioned. In 1835 William A. Richardson, an Englishman who had settled in California in 1822, moved to the site of the present city, then known as Yerba Buena, put up a tent on what is now Dupont Street, and began dealing in hides and tallow. In the following year Jacob P. Leese arrived at the Mission and erected the first private dwelling. Jean Vioget surveyed the town and laid out the streets and lots in 1839; a saw-mill was built by Messrs. Spear and Hinckley, Americans, in 1841; Captain Montgomery, of the sloop-of-war *Portsmouth*, raised the American flag on what is now Portsmouth Square, July 8, 1846; and in the latter year the ship *Brooklyn* arrived from New York with 200 Mormon immigrants.

In January, 1847, the alcalde changed the name of the town from Yerba Buena to San Francisco. During that year the first private school was opened, a committee was appointed to establish a public school, the first hotel was completed, and a new survey of the town was made by Jasper O'Farrell. The discovery of gold at John A. Sutter's lumber camp at Coloma, Jan. 18, 1848, depopulated the town considerably; but in 1849 the population of the entire gold-bearing region was increased tenfold. At one time there were 400 vessels lying idle in the harbor, deserted by passengers and crews in the wild rush to the gold-fields. In that year the *California*, the first steamship of the Pacific Mail Company, arrived at San Francisco; the *Oregon* brought John W. Geary, the first postmaster of the city, and the first United States mail to the Pacific coast; Presbyterian, Baptist, and Congregational churches were organized; the first steamboat to ply regularly between the city and Sacramento arrived; and the city had its first great fire.

The town was incorporated as a city, and John W. Geary elected its first mayor on May 1, 1850. On May 4, 1851, occurred the fourth and greatest fire, in which sixteen blocks were burned over and more than 1,500 houses destroyed. Increasing lawlessness by the hordes of gold-seeking adventurers, gamblers, and desperadoes led to the organization of a Vigilance Committee in June, 1851, and during this year the committee hung three persons in its efforts to restore order and rid the city of obnoxious characters. In 1855 the city suffered from a financial panic, caused by the failure of Adams & Co.'s bank on Feb. 23, and before it was checked there had been 197 failures with liabilities of over $8,000,000. A wide-spread sensation was created by a duel between David S. Terry, chief-justice of the California Supreme Court, and David C. Broderick, United States Senator, at a spot ten miles beyond the city limits, on Sept. 13, 1859, resulting in the fatal wounding of Senator Broderick.

The first pony express arrived April 14, 1860, nine days from St. Joseph, Mo., and on Oct. 23, following, the city was connected with New York by telegraph. Earthquakes occurred Oct. 8, 1865, and Oct. 21, 1868. The failure of the Bank of California and the death of President Ralston, both on Aug. 26, 1875, caused much excitement in financial circles throughout the country. In July, 1877, serious anti-Chinese rioting broke out, precipitated by Dennis Kearney, leader of the Labor or Sand-Lot party, who raised the cry, "The Chinese Must Go!" It was subdued by a second Vigilance Committee. Kearney was arrested, found guilty of misdemeanor, and sentenced to imprisonment and a fine, but the State Supreme Court reversed the decision of the police court in 1880.

San Francisco had its first industrial fair, that of the Mechanics' Institute, in 1857, and its first great exposition, the Midwinter, in 1894. In 1903 it was brought into direct cable communication with the Philippine Islands.

In 1894 civic conditions in the city, which had long been the prey of politicians, began to improve, mainly through the efforts of a newly formed Merchants' Association. A new charter was ratified by popular vote in 1898 and became effective on Jan. 8, 1900. It placed the

responsibility and power of the municipal government in the hands of the mayor. For three years and a half matters moved along smoothly; then it became evident that the charter would not bring about the conditions the best elements of the community desired. A bitter personal political campaign ensued; Eugene Schmitz, the Union Labor candidate, was elected mayor for the third time; Abraham Ruef, who had started the Independent Union Labor party, became the "boss" of the city and county; and charges of fraud, graft, and official corruption became a matter of almost daily occurrence. Then, and in the face of apparently unsurmountable obstacles, Rudolph Spreckels, at his own expense, undertook a vigorous investigation of the common charges. He employed Attorney Francis J. Heney and Detective Burns, and the first result of their labors was the conviction of former Mayor Schmitz for extortion in office and his imprisonment, in 1906. Two years afterwards Ruef was convicted on charges of graft and corruption and sentenced to fourteen years' imprisonment. During his trial Attorney Heney was shot by a juror he had exposed as an ex-convict in a former Ruef trial. Ruef fought his conviction and sentence, but in March, 1911, the action of the court was sustained and he was taken to prison. Since the Schmitz trial a number of amendments to the city charter have been made (twenty-one in 1907), with a view to preventing frauds at elections and corruption in office, and the principle of the INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM (*q. v.*) has been adopted.

In 1906–07 there was considerable excitement over an attempt by the public-school authorities to segregate Japanese youth in the public schools, and for a time friendly relations between the United States and Japanese governments seemed to be at the breaking point in consequence, but the trouble was settled, largely through the efforts of President Roosevelt, and by concessions by all interested parties.

The greatest event in the history of the city was the earthquake and the resultant conflagration on April 18, 1906. The total property loss (28,188 buildings) was variously estimated at from $500,000,000 to double that amount; the total insurance at $300,000,000; and the loss of life at 500. The total relief subscriptions from all quarters were estimated at $9,129,553. The fire raged for three days, after sweeping over a triangular area of about five square miles, comprising more than 450 street blocks.

The terrible suddenness of the disaster appalled the inhabitants. But enthusiasm and the aid of others, the money received from the insurance companies, carried away the sorrow of loss, and San Francisco entered upon a period of unexampled industrial activity. One hundred and sixty-five million dollars in new buildings in forty months is the amazing record—more than 20,000 new structures completed in that time, yet that was what San Francisco did. These were rebuilt, to the greater glory of the city, better than before; the low wooden houses which had stood here and there in the midst of sky-scrapers are replaced with modern ones, for the most part fire-proof.

To guard this property the city put in a modern fire-fighting system, which, it is believed, will prevent any such catastrophe as the 1906 fire. The destruction then was due to a defective water system. One main supply pipe not only brought all the water to the city, but it was so placed that when it was ruptured it drained the reservoirs. For such an accident to happen again would mean that five elaborate systems, each one of which works independently of the other, must be put out of commission.

The most marked change is seen on Market Street, the great central avenue of the city for trade and traffic. Swept on both sides for nearly two miles, from the ferry to Van Ness Avenue, nothing was left except the shells of several office buildings whose interiors had been gutted. The Flood Building, at the intersection of Powell and Eddy streets; the Claus Spreckels Building; and the Chronicle Building, in Newspaper Row, were speedily completed. The famous Palace Hotel was a total ruin, but was rebuilt immediately.

Phelan Building, at the corner of Market and O'Farrell streets, costing more than $2,000,000, is a type of the new buildings. Geary, Grant Avenue, Post and Sutter

have become a new centre for the retail dry-goods establishments.

Far finer structures have gone up in the banking and insurance district. The Bank of California, the Alaska Commercial Company, the First National Bank, and the San Francisco Savings Union have erected handsome buildings—the last on the old Blythe block.

Tar Flat, the Irish tenement-house district, has completely changed its nature. The thousands of small wooden buildings of 1906—which a later ordinance has forbidden—have given way to manufacturing and business plants.

In the closing hours of the Sixty-first Congress (March, 1911), that body selected San Francisco as the seat of an international exposition to commemorate the completion of the PANAMA CANAL (*q. v.*), the official opening being scheduled for Jan. 1, 1915. New Orleans had been a strong opponent of San Francisco for the honor, and each city pledged a large subscription for its promotion. Citizens of San Francisco offered $7,500,000, and the legislature and municipal government authorized an appropriation of $5,000,000 each. Pop. (1870), 149,473; (1880) 233,959; (1890) 298,997; (1900) 342,782; (1910) 416,912.

San Ildefanso, TREATY OF. A secret treaty by which Spain retroceded Louisiana to France, Oct. 1, 1800.

San Jacinto, BATTLE OF, a notable battle that decided the independence of Texas. It was a desperate engagement between a Mexican force in command of Santa Ana, 1,600 in the ranks, and 783 Texans led by Sam Houston, April 21, 1836. The Mexicans were defeated and utterly routed. The battle was fought on the banks of the San Jacinto River, 17 miles e. by s. of the present city of Houston. See TEXAS.

San Jose, a city and county-seat of Santa Clara county, Cal.; population in 1910, 28,946. In 1782 the Spaniards established a pueblo here, and on the adoption of the first constitution of California the State capital was located in the town.

San Juan, a small island near Vancouver's Island. The possession of this island, commanding the strait between British Columbia and the United States, was disputed, under conflicting interpretations of the treaty of Washington respecting the boundaries, June 12, 1846. The matter (by treaty of Washington, May 8, 1871) was referred for arbitration to the Emperor of Germany, who decided in favor of the United States, in October, 1872. The island was evacuated by the British on Nov. 22 following.

San Juan, city, seaport, and capital of the island of Porto Rico, in the department of same name, on a long and narrow island, separated from the main island at one end by a shallow arm of the sea, over which is a bridge connecting it with the mainland, which runs out at this point in a long sand spit some 9 miles in length, apparently to meet the smaller island; at the other end the island ends in a rugged bluff or promontory some hundred feet high and three-fourths of a mile distant from the main island. This promontory is crowned by Morro Castle, the principal fortification of the city. At this end of the island is the entrance to the harbor, with a narrow channel and rocky bottom. The water here is some 30 feet deep. To a mariner unacquainted with the locality, or when a norther is blowing, this entrance is one of difficulty and danger. After rounding the bluff one finds a broad and beautiful bay, land-locked and with a good depth of water, which is being increased by dredging. It is by far the best harbor in Porto Rico, and probably as good a one as can be found in the West Indies.

The island upon which the city stands is shaped much like an arm and hand; it is about 2¼ miles long and averages less than one-fourth of a mile in width. The greatest width is a little over half a mile in the portion representing the hand, which also contains the major part of the city. San Juan is a perfect specimen of a walled town, with portcullis, moat, gates, and battlements. Built over 250 years ago, it is still in good condition and repair. The walls are picturesque, and represent a stupendous work and cost in themselves. Inside the walls the city is laid off in regular squares, six parallel streets running in the direction of the length of the island and seven at right angles. The houses are closely and compactly built, of brick, usually of two stories, stuccoed on the outside and

painted in a variety of colors. The upper floors are occupied by the more respectable people, while the ground floors, almost without exception, are given up to negroes and the poorer class, who crowd one upon another in the most appalling manner. The entire population depends upon rain-water, caught upon the flat roofs of the buildings and conducted to the cistern, which occupies the greater part of the inner court-yard that is an essential part of Spanish houses the world over, but that here, on account of the crowded conditions, is very small. There is no sewerage, except for surface water and sinks, while vaults are in every house and occupy whatever remaining space there may be in the *patios* not taken up by the cisterns.

The streets are wider than in the older part of Havana, and will admit two carriages abreast. The sidewalks are narrow, and in places will accommodate but one person. The pavements are of a composition manufactured in England from slag—pleasant and even, and durable when no heavy strain is brought to bear upon them, but easily broken and unfit for heavy traffic. The streets are swept once a day by hand, and are kept very clean. Besides the town within the walls there are small portions just outside, called the Marina and Puerta de Tierra, containing 2,000 or 3,000 inhabitants each. There are also two suburbs—one, San Turce, approached by the only road leading out of the city; and the other, Cataño, across the bay, reached by ferry. The Marina and the two suburbs are situated on sandy points or spits, and the latter are surrounded by mangrove swamps. One-half of the population consists of negroes and mixed races. There is but little manufacturing, and it is of small importance. The Standard Oil Company has a small refinery across the bay in which crude petroleum, brought from the United States, is refined. Matches are made, some brooms, a little soap, and a cheap class of trunks. There are also ice, gas, and electric-light works. The climate is warm, but for three months of the year agreeable, although one is subject, from the sudden change, to colds and catarrh. The natives are particularly susceptible to this class of ailments, and to consumption and bronchitis.

According to the census taken by the War Department in 1899, the pop. was 32,048; by 1910 census, 48,716. For military and naval operations, see PORTO RICO; SPAIN, WAR WITH.

San Juan de Ulloa. See VERA CRUZ.

SAN JUAN—WATER-FRONT AND HARBOR.

SAN JUAN HILL AND BLOCK-HOUSE—PLAN OF OPERATIONS.

San Juan Hill, the scene of a severe engagement between the American and Spanish troops near El Caney, while the American army was on its march towards Santiago. After the engagement at LAS GUASIMAS (*q. v.*), the time up to June 30 was spent in concentrating the American troops and making preparations for farther advance. To the northeast of Santiago was the village of El Caney, and on the same side, some 2 to 3 miles from it, were the San Juan hills and block-houses. It was decided to attack and carry these positions without further delay. There were but four light batteries, of four guns each, in the army, and Lawton's division, assisted by Capron's battery, was ordered to move out that day —June 30—and make an attack early in the morning of July 1 towards El Caney. Then, after carrying El Caney, he was to move by the road of that name towards Santiago, and take a position on the extreme right of the line. Grimes's battery, of the 2d, attached to Kent's division, had orders the same afternoon to prepare the way next morning for the advance of Kent's and Wheeler's divisions on the San Juan hills, the attack of which was to be delayed by the infantry till Lawton's guns were heard at El Caney.

About this time news was brought that the Spanish General Pando, with reinforcements of 8,000 men, was making rapid approach, and would probably soon enter Santiago from the northwest. Early on July 1 Lawton was in position, Chaffee's brigade on the right, Ludlow's on the left, and Miles's in the centre. The conflict opened at 6 A.M., and soon became general. The naturally strong position of the enemy was rendered doubly so by stone block-houses and forts. After two hours' fighting Bates's brigade was ordered from the rear to the support of Lawton, and the battle continued. It was in these assaults that the 71st Regiment of New York Volunteers participated. The Spaniards fought with great obstinacy, but were slowly and surely driven from their intrenchments and forced to retire. After Lawton had become well engaged, Grimes's battery from the heights of El Pozo opened fire on the San Juan block-houses very effectively. The Spanish replied with field-pieces and smokeless powder. They soon had our range, while their smokeless powder made it difficult to determine their exact locality.

The troops of Wheeler's and Kent's divisions, which had up to this time been partially concealed, were ordered to deploy—Wheeler to the right, towards Lawton, and Kent to the left. We here quote General Shafter:

"In the mean time Kent's division, with the exception of two regiments of Haw-

SAN JUAN RIDGE AND BLOCK-HOUSE.

kins's brigade, being thus uncovered, moved rapidly to the front from the forks previously mentioned in the road, utilizing both trails, but more especially the one to the left, and, crossing the creek, formed for attack in the front of San Juan Hill. During this formation the 2d Brigade suffered severely. While personally superintending this movement, its gallant commander, Colonel Wikoff, was killed. The command of the brigade then devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Worth, 13th Infantry, who was soon severely wounded, and next upon Lieutenant-Colonel Liscum, 24th Infantry, who, five minutes later, also fell under the terrible fire of the enemy, and the command of the brigade then devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Ewers, 9th Infantry.

"While the formation just described was taking place, General Kent took measures to hurry forward his rear brigade. The 10th and 2d Infantry were ordered to follow Wikoff's brigade, while the 21st was sent on the right-hand road to support the 1st Brigade, under General Hawkins, who had crossed the stream and formed on the right of the division. The 2d and 10th Infantry, Col. E. P. Pearson commanding, moved forward in good order on the left of the division, passed over a green knoll, and drove the enemy back towards his trenches.

"After completing their formation under a destructive fire, and advancing a short distance, both divisions found in their front a wide bottom, in which had been placed a barbed-wire entanglement, and beyond which there was a high hill, along the crest of which the enemy was strongly posted. Nothing daunted, these gallant men pushed on to drive the enemy from his chosen position, both divisions losing heavily. In this assault Colonel Hamilton, Lieutenants Smith and Shipp were killed, and Colonel Carroll, Lieutenants Thayer and Myer, all in the cavalry, were wounded."

The battle of July 1, called the battle of El Caney, was over, with the Americans strongly holding all they had gained during the day. The losses were very heavy, and the reputed coming of General Pando made it necessary at once to continue the struggle the next day, and gain a decided victory before the Spanish could be strengthened. The troops had advanced and carried certain positions, but the enemy was evidently in stronger ones, and it was necessary to drive him out at once. During the afternoon of July 1 the two remaining batteries were brought up and placed in position near Grimes, and directed to play on the enemy's trenches. General Duffield's brigade, composed of the 33d and 34th Michigan and a Massachusetts regiment, was ordered to assault Aguadores, a small outpost. During the afternoon and night of July 1 the American lines were rearranged and strengthened, and on the morning of the 2d the enemy himself opened the battle by making a fierce assault. But while Kent and Wheeler remained behind their works repelling numerous assaults, Lawton advanced his lines and gained strong and commanding positions on the right. On the morning of July 3 the fighting was

renewed, but the enemy soon gave way and the firing ceased. See SPAIN, WAR WITH.

The Roosevelt Reports.—The following are the two reports by Lieut.-Col. Theodore Roosevelt, detailing the gallantry of the "Rough Riders" in the San Juan Hill fight, which were not made public till Dec. 22, 1898. The first report is as follows:

Col. Leonard Wood, commanding 2d Cavalry Brigade.

SIR,—On July 1 the regiment, with myself in command, was moved out by your orders directly following the 1st Brigade. Before leaving the camping-ground several of our men were wounded by shrapnel. After crossing the river at the ford, we were moved along and up the right bank under fire, and were held in reserve at a sunk road. Here we lost a good many men, including Captain O'Neill killed and Lieutenant Haskell wounded. We then received your order to advance and support the regular cavalry in the attack on the intrenchments and block-houses on the hills to the left. The regiment was deployed on both sides of the road and moved forward until we came to the rearmost lines of the regulars. We continued to move forward until I ordered a charge, and the men rushed the block-house and rifle-pits on the hill to the right of our advance. They did the work in fine shape, although suffering severely. The guidons of Troops E and G were first planted on the summit, though the first men up were some of A and B troopers, who were with me. We then opened fire on the intrenchments on a hill to our left, which some of the other regiments were assailing, and which they carried a few minutes later.

Meanwhile we were under a heavy fire from the intrenchments along the hills to our front, from where they also shelled with a piece of field artillery until some of our marksmen silenced it. When the men got their wind we charged again and carried the second line of intrenchments with a rush. Swinging to the left, we then drove the Spaniards over the brow of the chain of hills fronting on Santiago. By this time the regiments were much mixed, and we were under a very heavy fire both of shrapnel and from rifles, from the batteries, intrenchments, and forts immediately in front of the city. On the extreme front I was myself in command, with fragments of the six cavalry regiments and the two batteries under me. The Spaniards made one or

SAN JUAN HILL.

two efforts to retake the line, but were promptly driven back. Both General Sumner and you sent me word to hold the line at all hazards, and that night we dug a line of intrenchments across our front, using the captured Spanish intrenching tools. We had nothing to eat except what we captured from the Spaniards, but their dinners had fortunately been cooked, and we ate them with relish, having been fighting all day. We had no blankets or coats, and lay by the trenches all night. The Spaniards attacked us once in the night, and at dawn they opened a heavy artillery and rifle fire. Very great assistance was rendered us by Lieutenant Parker's Gatling battery at critical moments. He fought his guns at the extreme front of the firing-line in a way that repeatedly called forth the cheers of my men. One of the Spanish batteries which was used against us was directly in front of the hospital, so that the Red Cross flag flew over the battery, saving it from our fire for a considerable period. The Spanish Mauser bullets made clean wounds, but they also used a copper-jacketed or brass-jacketed bullet which exploded, making very bad wounds indeed.

Since then we have continued to hold together. The food has been short, and until to-day we could not get our blankets, coats, or shelter-tents, while the men lay all day under the fire of the Spanish batteries, intrenchments, and guerillas in trees, and worked all night in the trenches, never even taking off their shoes; but they are in excellent spirits, and ready and anxious to carry out any orders they receive. At the end of the first day the eight troops were commanded, two by captains, three by first lieutenants, two by second lieutenants and one by the sergeant whom you made acting lieutenant.

We went into the fight about 490 strong; eighty-six were killed or wounded, and there are half a dozen missing. The great heat prostrated nearly forty men, some of them among the best in the regiment. Besides Captain O'Neill and Lieutenant Haskell, Lieutenants Leahy, Devereaux, and Case were wounded. All behaved with great gallantry. As for Captain O'Neill, his loss is one of the severest that could have befallen the regiment. He was a man of cool head, great executive ability, and literally dauntless courage.

The guerillas in trees not only fired at our troops, but seemed to devote themselves especially to shooting at the surgeons, the hospital assistants with Red Cross bandages on their arms, the wounded who were being carried in litters, and the burying parties. Many of these guerillas were dressed in green uniforms. We sent out a detail of sharp-shooters among those in our rear and also along the line where they had been shooting the wounded, and killed thirteen.

To attempt to give a list of the men who showed signal valor would necessitate sending in an almost complete roster of the regiment. Many of the cases which I mention stand merely as examples of the rest, not as exceptions. Captain Jenkins acted as major, and showed such conspicuous gallantry and efficiency that I earnestly hope he may be promoted to major as soon as a vacancy occurs. Captains Lewellen, Muller, and Luna led their troops throughout the charges, handling them admirably. At the end of the battle Lieutenants Kane, Greenwood, and Goodrich were in charge of their troops, immediately under my eye, and I wish particularly to commend their conduct throughout. Corporals Waller and Fortescue, and Trooper McKinley, of Troop E; Corporal Rhoades, of Troop D; Troopers Albertson, Winter, McGregor, and Ray Clark, of Troop F; Troopers Bugbe, Jackson, and Waller, of Troop A; Trumpeter McDonald, of Troop L.; Sergeant Hughes, of Troop B, and Trooper Geieren, of Troop G, all continued to fight after being wounded, some very severely; most of them fought until the end of the day. Trooper Oliver B. Norton, of Troop B, who with his brother was by my side all throughout the charging, was killed while fighting with marked gallantry. Sergeant Ferguson, Corporal Lee, and Troopers Bell and Carroll, of Troop K, Sergeant Dame, of Troop E; Troopers Goodwin, Campbell, and Dudley Dean, Trumpeter Foster, of Troop B, and Troopers Greenwold and Bardehan, of Troop A, are all worthy of special mention for coolness and gallantry. They all merit promotion when the time comes. But the most conspicuous gallantry was shown by Trooper Rowland.

He was wounded in the side in our first fight, but kept in the firing-line; he was sent to the hospital the next day, but left it and marched out to us, overtaking us, and fought all through this battle with such indifference to danger that I was forced again and again to berate and threaten him for running needless risks.

Great gallantry was also shown by four troopers whom I cannot identify, and by Trooper Winslow Clark, of Troop G. It was after we had taken the first hill; I had called out to rush the second, and, having by that time lost my horse, climbed a wire fence and started towards it. After going a couple of hundred yards, under a heavy fire, I found that no one else had come. As I discovered later, it was simply because, in the confusion, with men shooting and being shot, they had not noticed me start. I told the five men to wait a moment, as it might be misunderstood if we all ran back, while I ran back and started the regiment, and as soon as I did so the regiment came with a rush. But meanwhile the five men coolly lay down in the open, returning the fire from the trenches. It is to be wondered at that only Clark was seriously wounded, and he called out as we passed again to lay his canteen where he could reach it, but to continue the charge and leave him where he was. All the wounded had to be left until after the fight, for we could spare no men from the firing-line.

Very respectfully,

THEODORE ROOSEVELT,

Lieutenant-Colonel, 1st United States Volunteer Cavalry.

The second and more important report is as follows:

CAMP HAMILTON, NEAR SANTIAGO DE CUBA, *July 20, 1898.*

Brig.-Gen. Leonard Wood, commanding 2d Brigade Cavalry Division.

SIR,—In obedience to your directions I herewith report on the operations of my regiment from the 1st to the 17th inst., inclusive. As I have already made you two reports about the first day's operations, I shall pass over them rather briefly.

On the morning of the first day my regiment was formed at the head of the 2d Brigade, by the El Paso sugar-mill. When the batteries opened the Spaniards replied to us with shrapnel, which killed and wounded several of the men of my regiment. We then marched towards the right, and my regiment crossed the ford before the balloon came down there and attracted the fire of the enemy, so that at that point we lost no one. My orders had been to march forward until I joined General Lawton's left wing, but after going about three-quarters of a mile I was halted and told to remain in reserve near the creek by a deep lane. The bullets dropped thick among us for the next hour while we lay there, and many of my men were killed or wounded. Among the former was Captain O'Neill, whose loss was a very heavy blow to the regiment, for he was a singularly gallant and efficient officer. Acting Lieutenant Haskell was also shot at this time. He showed the utmost courage, and had been of great use during the fighting and marching. It seems to me some action should be taken about him.

You then sent me word to move forward in support of the regular cavalry and I advanced the regiment in column of companies, each company deployed as skirmishers. We moved through several skirmish lines of the regiment ahead of us, as it seemed to me our only chance was in rushing the intrenchments in front instead of firing at them from a distance. Accordingly we charged the blockhouse and intrenchments on the hill to our right against a heavy fire. It was taken in good style, the men of my regiment thus being the first to capture any fortified position and to break through the Spanish lines. The guidons of G and E troops were first at this point, but some of the men of A and B troops who were with me personally got in ahead of them. At the last wire fence up this hill I was obliged to abandon my horse, and after that went on foot. After capturing this hill we first of all directed a heavy fire upon the San Juan Hill to our left, which was at the time being assailed by the regular infantry and cavalry supported by Captain Parker's Gatling guns.

By the time San Juan was taken a large force had assembled on the hill we had previously captured, consisting not only of my own regiment, but of the 9th and of

THE CAPTURE OF SAN JUAN BLOCK-HOUSE

portions of other cavalry regiments. We then charged forward under a very heavy fire across the valley against the Spanish intrenchments on the hill in the rear of the San Juan Hill. This we also took, capturing several prisoners.

We then formed in whatever order we could, and moved forward, driving the Spanish before us, to the crest of the hills in our front, which were immediately opposite the city of Santiago itself. Here I received orders to halt and hold the line of hill-crest. I had at the time fragments of the 6th Cavalry Regiment and an occasional infantryman under me—three or four hundred men all told. As I was the highest there, I took command of all of them, and so continued until next morning. The Spaniards attempted a counter attack that afternoon, but were easily driven back, and then until after dark we remained under a heavy fire from their rifles and great guns, lying flat on our faces on a gentle slope just behind the crest. Captain Parkhurst's Gatling battery was run up to the right of my regiment, and did most excellent and gallant service. In order to charge the men had, of course, been obliged to throw away their packs, and we had nothing to sleep in and nothing to eat. We were lucky enough, however, to find in the last block-house captured the Spanish dinners still cooking, which we ate with relish. They consisted chiefly of rice and pease, with a big pot containing a stew of fresh meat, probably for the officers. We also distributed the captured Spanish blankets as far as they would go among our men, and gathered a good deal of Mauser ammunition for use in the Colt rapid-fire guns, which were being brought up. That night we dug intrenchments across our front.

At three o'clock in the morning the Spaniards made another attack upon us, which was easily repelled, and at four o'clock they opened the day with a heavy rifle and shrapnel fire. We lay all day long under this, replying whenever we got the chance. In the evening at about eight o'clock the Spaniards fired three guns, and then opened a very heavy rifle fire, their skirmishers coming well forward I got all my men down into the trenches, as did the other command near me, and we opened a heavy return fire. The Spanish advance was at once stopped and after an hour their fire died away.

This night we completed most of our trenches, and began to build bomb-proofs. The protection afforded our men was good, and next morning I had but one man wounded from the rifle and shell fire until twelve o'clock, when the truce came. I do not mention the officers and men who particularly distinguished themselves, as I have nothing to add in this respect to what was contained in my two former letters. There were numerous Red Cross flags flying in the various parts of the city, two of them so arranged that they directly covered batteries in our front, and for some time were the cause of our not firing at them.

The Spanish guerillas were very active, especially in our rear, where they seemed by preference to attack the wounded men who were being carried on litters, the doctors and medical attendants with Red Cross badges on their arms and the burial parties. I organized a detail of sharpshooters and sent them out after the guerillas, of whom they killed thirteen. Two of the men thus killed were shot several hours after the truce had been in operation, because, in spite of this fact, they kept firing upon our men as they went to draw water. They were stationed in the trees, as the guerillas were generally, and, owing to the density of the foliage and to the use of smokeless powder, it was an exceedingly difficult matter to locate them.

For the next seven days, until the 10th, we lay in our line, while the truce continued. We had continually to work at additional bomb-proofs and at the trenches, and as we had no proper supply of food, and utterly inadequate medical facilities, the men suffered a good deal. The officers chipped together, purchased beans, tomatoes and sugar for the men, so that they might have some relief from the bacon and hardtack. With a great deal of difficulty we got them coffee. As for the sick and wounded, they suffered so in the hospitals, when sent to the rear, for lack of food and attention that we found it best to keep them at the front, and give them such care as our own doctors could.

As I mentioned in my previous letter, thirteen of our wounded men continued to

fight through the battle, in spite of their wounds, and of those sent to the rear many, both of the sick and wounded, came up to rejoin us as soon as their condition allowed them to walk; most of the worst cases were ultimately sent to the States.

On the 10th the truce was at an end and the bombardment reopened. So far as our lines were concerned, it was on the Spanish part very feeble. We suffered no losses and speedily got the fire from their trenches in our front completely under. On the 11th we were moved three-quarters of a mile to the right, the truce again being on; nothing happened here except that we continued to watch and do our best to get the men, especially the sick, properly fed. By these means we were able from time to time to get supplies of beans, sugar, tomatoes, and even oatmeal, while from the Red Cross people we got our invaluable load of rice, corn-meal, etc. All of this was of the utmost consequence, not only for the sick, but for those nominally well, as the lack of proper food was telling terribly on the men. It was utterly impossible to get them clothes and shoes; those they had were in many cases literally dropping to pieces.

On the 17th the city surrendered. On the 18th we shifted camp to here, the best camp we have had, but the march hither under the noonday sun told very heavily on our men, weakened by underfeeding and overwork, and the next morning 123 cases were reported to the doctor, and I now have but half of the six hundred men with which I landed four weeks ago fit for duty, and these are not fit to do anything like the work they could do then. As we had but one wagon, the change necessitated leaving much of my stuff behind, with a night of discomfort, with scanty shelter and scanty food for the most of the officers and many of the men. Only the possession of the improvised pack-train alluded to above saved us from being worse. Yesterday I sent in a detail of six officers and men to see if they could not purchase or make arrangements for a supply of proper food and proper clothing for the men, even if we had to pay for it out of our own pockets. Our suffering has been due primarily to lack of transportation and of proper food or sufficient clothing and of medical supplies. We should now have wagon sheets for tentage.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

Sanborn, ALVAN FRANCIS, journalist; born in Marlboro, Mass., July 8, 1866; graduated at Amherst College in 1887; associate editor of *International Cyclopædia* in 1891; author of a series of studies of New England towns, a study of beggars, contributor to magazines on sociological topics, etc.

Sanborn, FRANKLIN BENJAMIN, author; born in Hampton Falls, N. H., Dec. 15, 1831; graduated at Harvard College in 1855; lectured at Cornell, Smith, Wellesley, and the Concord School of Philosophy; an active member of the Massachusetts State board of charities; a founder of the American Social Science Association, National Prison Association, National Conference of Charities, Concord School of Philosophy, etc.; editor of the Boston *Commonwealth*, Springfield *Republican*, and *Journal of Social Science* in 1876–97, and author of *A History of New Hampshire; biographies of Thoreau, John Brown, Dr. S. G. Howe, Alcott, Brownson, Emerson, Dr. Earle;* personalities of *Thoreau* and *Emerson*, etc.

Sand Lots, the local popular name of a part of San Francisco, Cal., where the working-men were accustomed to hold public meetings. The anti-Chinese agitation was the beginning of the Working-man's party, which favored the new constitution proposed to the people for ratification on May 7, 1879. The Republican party opposed the new constitution, which, however, was adopted by a vote of 77,959 against 67,134. Denis Kearney was the leader of the so-called Labor or Sand Lot party which identified itself with the Greenback party; while a large number of the Labor party, including Mayor Kalloch, voted with the Democrats. Kearney was charged with making incendiary speeches. He was found guilty of misdemeanor on March 16, 1880, fined $1,000, and sentenced to six months' imprisonment. Two months later the decision and sentence were reversed by the State Supreme Court. See KEARNEY, DENIS.

Sandeman, ROBERT, reformer; born in Perth, Scotland, in 1718; founded a sect resembling Calvinism, with a distinction. The sect fell into two divisions. The Bap-

tist Sandemanians, who practised baptism, and the Osbornites, who rejected it. In 1764 he came to the United States and founded societies in Boston, Mass., and Danbury, Conn. The Sandemanians were generally loyalists during the Revolution. Sandeman published a series of letters addressed to James Hervey on his *Theron and Aspasio.*" He died in Danbury, Conn., April 2, 1771.

Sanders, ELIZABETH ELKINS, author; born in Salem, Mass., in 1762; was educated in her native town; and married Thomas Sanders in 1782. She was author of *Conversations, Principally on the Aborigines of North America; First Settlers of New England,* etc. She died in Salem, Mass., Aug. 10, 1851.

Sanders, JOHN, military engineer; born in Lexington, Ky., in 1810; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1834; became a captain in the engineer corps in 1838; was for several years engaged in improving the Ohio River and in the construction and repair of the interior defences of New York Harbor; served in the Mexican War, receiving the brevet of major for gallantry in the battle of Monterey; and later was engaged in improving the Delaware bay and river, and in constructing Fort Delaware. He published *Memoirs on the Resources of the Valley of the Ohio,* etc. He died in Fort Delaware, Del., July 29, 1858.

Sanderson, JOHN, author; born near Carlisle, Pa., in 1783; was educated privately; studied law but never practised; became a teacher and later associate principal of Clermont Seminary; and was Professor of Latin and Greek in the Philadelphia High School from 1836 till his death. He published, with his brother, the first two volumes of *Biography of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence;* and was the author of *The American in Paris; The American in London;* etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., April 5, 1844.

Sanders's Creek, BATTLE AT. In 1780, before Washington heard of the surrender of CHARLESTON (*q. v.*), he sent a detachment of Delaware and Maryland regiments, under the Baron de Kalb, for service in the South. They marched from Petersburg, Pa., for the Carolinas. After leaving the southern borders of Virginia, they made their way slowly through a poor, thinly inhabited country, without provision for a supply of food, the commissaries without credit, and compelled to get their supplies from day to day by impressment. With De Kalb's forces were two North Carolina regiments, under the respective commands of Colonels Rutherford and Caswell, who were chiefly employed in repressing the North Carolina Tories. The governor of that State (Nash) had recently been authorized by the legislature to send 8,000 men to the relief of South Carolina. To raise and equip them was not easy at that gloomy juncture. The Virginia regiment of Porterfield was at Salisbury. It rallied to the standard of De Kalb, whose slow march became a halt at Deep River, a tributary of the Cape Fear. There De Kalb was overtaken by General Gates (July 25), who had been appointed to the command of the Southern Department. Gates pressed forward towards Camden, through a barren and generally disaffected country.

The approach of "the conqueror of Burgoyne" greatly inspired the patriots of South Carolina, and such active partisans as Sumter, Marion, Pickens, and Clarke immediately summoned their followers in South Carolina and Georgia to the field, and they seemed to have prepared the way for Gates to make a complete conquest of the State. Clinton had left the command of the forces in the South to Cornwallis, and he had intrusted the leadership of the troops on the Santee and its upper waters to Lord Rawdon, an active officer. The latter was at Camden when Gates approached. Cornwallis, seeing the peril of the troops under him, because of the uprising of the patriots in all directions, hastened to the assistance of Rawdon, and reached that village on the same day (Aug. 14) that Gates arrived at Clermont, north of Camden, and was joined by 700 more Virginia militia, under General Stevens. Then, in his pride, Gates committed the fatal blunder of not preparing for a retreat or rendezvous, being confident of victory. He also weakened his army by sending a detachment to Sumter, to aid him in intercepting a convoy of supplies for Rawdon.

On the evening of the 15th Gates marched to attack Rawdon with little more than

3,000 men. Spurning the advice of his officers, he marched before he had made any disposition of his baggage in the rear. Cornwallis had left Camden to meet Gates at about the same time. Foot-falls could not be heard in the sandy road. As the vanguard of the British were ascending a gentle slope after crossing Sanders's Creek, that traversed a swamp, nearly 8 miles from Camden, they met the vanguard of the Americans, at a little after 2 A.M., on Aug. 16. It was a mutual surprise, and both began firing at the same time. Colonel Armand's troops, who led the van, fell back upon the 1st Maryland Brigade, and broke its line. The whole army, filled with consternation, would have fled but for the wisdom and skill of Porterfield, who, in rallying them, was mortally wounded. The British had the advantage, having crossed the creek, and were protected on flank and rear by an impenetrable swamp. Both parties halted, and waited anxiously for the dawn.

VIEW AT SANDERS'S CREEK.

The right of the British line was commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Webster, and the left by Lord Rawdon. De Kalb commanded the American right, and General Stevens the left, and the centre was composed of North Carolinians, under Colonel Caswell. A second line was formed by the 1st Maryland Brigade, led by General Smallwood. The American artillery opened the battle. This cannonade was followed by an attack by volunteers, under Col. Otho H. Williams, and Stevens's militia. The latter were mostly raw recruits, to whom bayonets had been given only the day before, and they did not know how to use them. The veterans, led by Webster, fell upon these raw troops with crushing force, and they threw down their muskets and fled to the woods for shelter. Then Webster attacked the Maryland Continentals, who fought gallantly until they were outflanked, when they also gave way. They were twice rallied, but finally retreated, when the brunt of the battle fell upon the Maryland and Delaware troops, led by De Kalb, assisted by General Gist, Colonel Howard, and Captain Kirkwood. They had almost won the victory, when Cornwallis sent some fresh troops that turned the tide. In this sharp battle De Kalb was mortally wounded. Gates's whole army was utterly routed and dispersed. For many miles the roads were strewed with dead militia, killed in their flight by Tories; and, having made no provision for retreat, Gates was the most expert fugitive in running away. He abandoned his army, and, in an ignoble flight to Hillsboro he rode about 200 miles in three days and a half. He had lost about 1,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners; the loss of the British was less than 500. The Americans lost all their artillery and ammunition, and a greater part of their baggage and stores.

Sandiford, RALPH, author; born in Liverpool, England, about 1693; settled in Pennsylvania, where he became a Quaker preacher; was one of the earliest abolitionists, and in the advocacy of negro rights published *A Brief Examination of the Practice of the Times, by the Foregoing and Present Dispensation,* etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 28, 1733.

Sands, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, naval officer; born in Baltimore, Md., Feb. 11, 1811; entered the navy as midshipman, April 1, 1828; was attached to the coast survey before and after the war against Mexico (in which he participated), and, while engaged in the blockading service (1861–65), was in both attacks on Fort Fisher. In May, 1867, he was made superintendent of the Naval Observatory, and was promoted rear-admiral in 1871. He died in Washington, D. C., June 30, 1883

Sands, JAMES HOBAN, naval officer; born in Washington, D. C., July 12, 1845; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1863; served in the North Atlantic blockading squadron in 1863–65, being present at the surrender of Charleston and at both attacks on Fort Fisher; and was promoted rear-admiral April 11, 1902. During the American-Spanish war he commanded the cruiser *Columbia*. After the Spanish surrender at Santiago he joined the expedition to Porto Rico, and was superintendent of the United States Naval Academy in 1905–07; governor of the Naval Home; then retired.

Sands, JOSHUA RATOON, naval officer; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., May 13, 1795; became a midshipman in 1812, serving under Chauncey on Lake Ontario. He was promoted commodore on the retired list in 1862, and rear-admiral in 1866. He served on the Mexican coast in 1847–48, and was at different times commander of the East India, Mediterranean, and Brazilian squadrons. He died in Baltimore, Md., Oct. 2, 1883.

Sandusky, a city and port of entry in Erie county, O.; on Lake Erie, at the mouth of the Sandusky River. Near by is Johnson's Island, on which 2,500 Confederate officers who had been taken prisoners were confined in 1863. During the summer a plot was formed to liberate these prisoners and in connection with this act to burn or otherwise destroy Buffalo and other lake cities. An expedition for these objects was organized in Canada. The plans of the Confederate sympathizers became known to the American consul-general in Montreal, who immediately notified the Canadian authorities. By Nov. 11, the governor-general had gained sufficient information to warrant his notifying Lord Lyons, the British minister at Washington, of the plot. Lord Lyons promptly communicated with the United States government, and by midnight of the same day Secretary Stanton had perfected plans which put an end to the movement. Pop. (1910), 19,989.

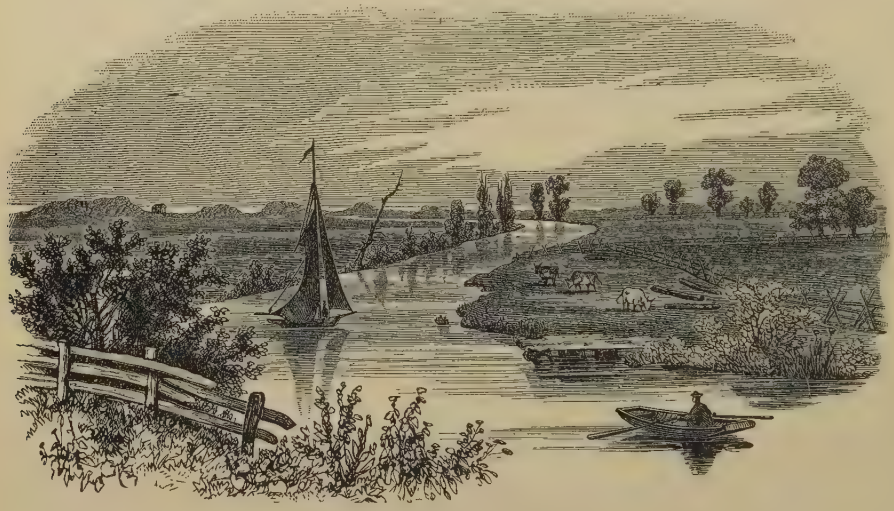
Sandusky, INDIAN OPERATIONS AT. On May 16, 1763, a party of Indians appeared at the gate of Fort Sandusky. The commander, Ensign Paulli, admitted seven of them as friends and acquaintances. They smoked awhile, when, at a preconcerted signal, they seized the ensign and carried him out of the room, where he saw the dead body of his sentry and of others of the garrison. All had been massacred by the treacherous Indians. They also killed the traders, seized their stores, and carried the ensign to Detroit as a trophy (see PONTIAC). In 1782, flushed with success against the Christian Indians on the Muskingum, 480 men marched, under Colonels Williamson and Crawford, to complete their destruction by assailing them at Sandusky. They designed, at the same time, to strike a blow at the Wyandotte town. They fell into an Indian ambush near Sandusky, and, attacked by an overwhelming force, were compelled to retreat. Many stragglers were killed, and, while Williamson escaped, Crawford and others were made prisoners. The colonel and his son-in-law were tortured and burned at the stake, in revenge for the cold-blooded murder on the Muskingum.

Sandwich Islands. See HAWAII.

Sandy Creek, BATTLE AT. There was great anxiety felt in the spring of 1814, to have the *Superior*, ship-of-war, built at Sackett's Harbor, hastened for sea, lest Sir James L. Yeo would roam over Lake Ontario the unrestricted lord of the waters. Heavy guns and cables destined for her were yet at Oswego. The roads were almost impassable, and the blockade of Sackett's Harbor made a voyage thither by water a perilous one. The gallant master-commander, M. T. Woolsey, declared his willingness to attempt carrying the ordnance and naval stores to Stony Creek, 3 miles from Sackett's Harbor, where they might reach Commodore Chauncey in safety. On May 19 Woolsey was at Oswego with nineteen boats heavily laden with cannon and naval stores. The flotilla went out of the harbor at twilight, bearing Major Appling, with 130 riflemen. About the same number of Oneida Indians agreed to meet the flotilla at the mouth of Big Salmon River, and traverse the shore abreast the vessels, to assist in repelling any attack. Woolsey found it unsafe to attempt to reach Stony Creek, for the blockaders were vigilant, so he ran into Big Sandy Creek, a few miles from the harbor, under cover of a very dark night, and landed the precious treasure there.

The British heard of the movement, and,

ignorant of the presence of Major Appling and the Indians, proceeded to attempt to capture the flotilla on the Big Sandy. That stream wound through a marshy plain about 2 miles, and at that time was fringed with trees and shrubs. Among these Major Appling ambushed his riflemen and the Indians. Near Woolsey's boats were stationed some cavalry, artillery, and infantry, with field-pieces, which had been sent there from Sackett's Harbor. The confident Britons, sure of success, pushed up the sinuous creek with their vessels, and strong flanking parties were thrown out on each shore. The guns of the vessels sent solid shot upon the American flotilla and grape and canister among the bushes. These dispersed the cowardly Indians, but young Appling's sharp-shooters were undisturbed. When the invaders were within rifle-range the riflemen opened destructive volleys upon them, and at the same time the artillery on shore opened a furious cannonade. So sharp and unexpected was the assault, in front, flank, and rear, that the British surrendered within ten minutes after the first gun was fired in response to their own. They had lost a midshipman and seventeen men killed, and at least fifty wounded. The Americans had one rifleman and one Indian warrior wounded, but lost no life. They captured the British squadron, with about 170 officers and men as prisoners of war. A ponderous cable for the *Superior*, 22 inches in circumference, and weighing 9,600 lbs., was borne to the harbor in a day and a half, on the shoulders of 200 militiamen, carrying it a mile at a time without resting.



PLACE OF BATTLE AT SANDY CREEK.

Sandy Hook. See HANCOCK, FORT.

Sandys, EDWIN, statesman, born in Worcester, England, in 1561; was a son of the Bishop of York; became a pupil of Richard Hooker at Oxford; travelled much in Europe; and, on the accession of King James, was knighted. He became an influential member of the London Company, in which he introduced reforms; and in 1619, being treasurer of the company, he was chiefly instrumental in introducing representative government in Virginia, under Yeardly. The fickle King forbade his re-election in 1620; but he had served the interest of the colony and of humanity by proposing to send young maidens to Virginia to become wives of the planters. He died in Northbourne, Kent, in 1629.

Sandys, GEORGE, poet; born in Bishopthorpe, England, in 1577; brother of Edwin Sandys; educated at Oxford; appointed treasurer of Virginia; and was an earnest worker for the good of the colony,

building the first water-mill there. He promoted the establishment of iron-works, and introduced ship-building. He had published a book of travels; also a translation of the first five books of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, before he left England for Virginia. To these Drayton, in a rhyming letter, thus alludes:

"And, worthy George, by industry and use,
Let's see what lines Virginia will produce.
Go on with Ovid, as you have begun
With the first five books; let y'r numbers run
Glib as the former; so shall it live long,
And do much honor to the English tongue."

In Virginia he translated the other ten books, and the whole translation was published in London in folio, with full-page engravings, in 1626. Sandys wrote several other poetical works. He died in Boxley Abbey, Kent, in 1644.

Sanford, CHARLES W., military officer; born in Newark, N. J., May 5, 1796; admitted to the bar in New York City and practised there till his death, attaining eminence in his profession; was at the head of the New York State militia for more than thirty years; directed the troops in suppressing the Astor Place, Flour, Street Preachers', and Draft riots; served with the three months' volunteers at the beginning of the Civil War; held a command at Harper's Ferry during the engagement of Bull Run. He died in Avon Springs, N. Y., July 25, 1878.

Sanford, HENRY SHELTON, diplomatist; born in Woodbury, Conn., June 15, 1823; studied in Washington College, and later in Heidelberg University; entered the United States diplomatic service in 1847; was secretary of the United States legation in Paris in 1849–54; and minister to Belgium in 1861–69, where he negotiated the Scheldt treaty of commerce and navigation. He founded the city of Sanford, Fla., in 1870; was United States commissioner on the Congo River Colony in 1883; and was a delegate to the international Congo conference in 1885, and to the anti-slavery conference at Brussels in 1889. He died in Healing Springs, Va., May 21, 1891.

Sanford, NATHAN, jurist; born in Bridgehampton, N. Y., Nov. 5, 1777; educated at Yale College; admitted to the bar in 1799; was United States district attorney in 1803–16, and during this period also served in both branches of the State legislature; and was elected United States Senator as a Democrat, serving in 1815–21. He succeeded James Kent as chancellor; was again in the United States Senate in 1826–31, and during this service he was chiefly noted for his efforts in behalf of currency reform, and for urging a retaliatory policy towards France. He died in Flushing, N. Y., Oct. 17, 1838.

Sanger, JOSEPH PRENTICE, military officer; born in Michigan; distinguished himself in the Civil War, receiving two brevets; accompanied General Upton on his tour of inspection of the armies of Japan, France, Austria, and England in 1875–77; was appointed inspector of volunteers in May, 1898; brigadier-general May 27, 1898; major-general, and retired in 1904. He was director of the census in Cuba and Porto Rico in 1899, and in the Philippines in 1903.

Sanger, WILLIAM CARY, military officer; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., May 21, 1853; graduated at Harvard College in 1874; lieutenant-colonel of the 203d United States Volunteers during the American-Spanish War; assistant Secretary of War in 1901–03; president United States Delegation to International Conference at Genoa in 1906; he is the author of *Sea Coast Defences and the Organization of Sea Coast Artillery Forces; Organization and Training of a National Reserve*, etc.

Sanitary Commission, THE UNITED STATES, one of two great popular organizations established to promote the relief and comfort of the National soldiers and sailors during the American Civil War, the other body being the UNITED STATES CHRISTIAN COMMISSION (*q. v.*). The corporate names of the two organizations indicate their respective spheres of operation.

On the day that President Lincoln issued his call for 75,000 men, the women of Bridgeport, Conn., organized a society for the purpose of affording relief and comfort to the volunteers. This was the first in all the land. On the same day (April 15, 1861) a woman in Charlestown, Mass. (Miss Almena Bates), took steps to form a similar organization, and a few days later the women of Lowell did the same. They

proposed to supply nurses for the sick and wounded, and provisions, clothing, and other comforts not furnished by the government; also to send books and newspapers to the camps, and to keep up a constant communication with their friends in the field. On the 19th the women of Cleveland, O., formed an association for the purpose of taking care of the families of the volunteers. Earnest women in New York, at the suggestion of REV. HENRY W. BELLOWS, D.D. (*q. v.*) and Dr. Elisha Harris, met with a few earnest men, and formed the Women's Central Association for Relief. Auxiliary associations were formed.

Then an organization on a more extended and efficient plan was formed, which contemplated the co-operation of the medical department of the army, under the sanction of the government, in the care of the sanitary interests of the soldiers. Already MISS DOROTHY DIX (*q. v.*) had done much in that direction. She had offered her services gratuitously to the government, and obtained the sanction of the War Department for the organization of military hospitals and the furnishing of nurses for them. Eight days after the President's call for troops (April 23) the Secretary of War issued a proclamation, announcing the fact of the acceptance of Miss Dix's services, and on May 1, Surgeon-General Wood "cheertully and thankfully" recognized the ability and energy of Miss Dix, and requested all women who offered their services as nurses to report to her.

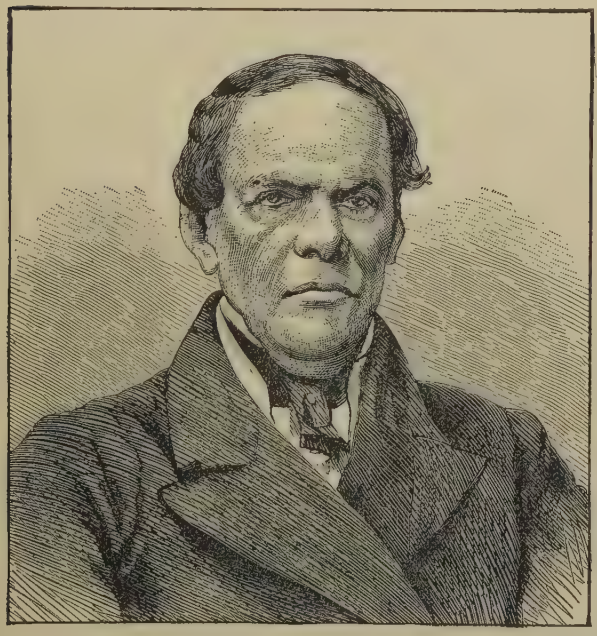
On June 9 the Secretary of War issued an order appointing Henry W. Bellows, D.D., Prof. Alexander D. Bache, Prof. Jeffries Wyman, M.D., William H. Van Buren, M.D., Surg.-Gen. R. C. Wood, U. S. A., Gen. George W. Cullum, of General Scott's staff, and Alexander Shiras, of the United States army, in conjunction with such others as might associate with them, "a commission of inquiry and advice in respect of the sanitary interests of the United States forces." The surgeon-general issued a circular announcing the creation of this commission. On June 12 a board of managers was organized, with Dr. Bellows at its head. He submitted a plan of organization, which was adopted, and it became the constitution of the commission, bearing the signatures of President Lincoln and Secretary of War Simon Cameron. The name now assumed was "The United States Sanitary Commission." Frederick Law Olmsted was chosen resident secretary—a post of great importance, for that officer was really the general manager of the affairs of the commission. Its seal bore the name and date of creation of the commission; also a shield bearing the figure of Mercy, winged, with the symbol of Christianity upon her bosom and a cup of consolation in her hand, coming down from the clouds to visit wounded soldiers on the battle-field.

The commission was to supplement government deficiencies. An appeal was made to the people, and was met by a most liberal response. Supplies and money flowed in, from all quarters, sufficient to meet every demand. All over the country, men, women, and children were seen working singly and collectively for it. Fairs were held in cities, which turned immense sums of money into the treasury of the commission. One small city alone (Poughkeepsie, N. Y.) contributed $16,000, or $1 for every man, woman, and child of its population. Branches were established; ambulances, army-wagons, and steamboats were employed in the transportation of the sick and wounded. It followed the armies closely in all campaigns, and before the smoke of conflict had been fairly lifted, there was the commission with its tents, vehicles, supplies, and necessaries.

When the war was ended, and the work of the sanitary commission was made plain, it was found that the loyal people of the land had given to it supplies valued at $15,000,000, and money to the amount of $5,000,000. The archives of the United States sanitary commission, containing a full record of its work, were deposited in the Astor Library in 1878, as a gift to that institution. "With this act," wrote Dr. Bellows, in his letter of presentation, "and with my signature as president of the sanitary commission, the last official act of my service, the United States sanitary commission expires. You receive its ashes, in which I hope some fragrance may linger, and, at least, survive to kindle in times of new need a flame equal to its own." C. T. STILLÉ (*q. v.*) wrote a *History of the United States Sanitary Commission.*

Sankey, IRA DAVID, singer; born in Edinburgh, Pa., Aug. 28, 1840; settled in Newcastle, Pa., where he joined the Methodist Episcopal Church; became interested in the work of the Young Men's Christian Association; and while attending the international convention of that association in Indianapolis in 1870 met DWIGHT L. MOODY (*q. v.*), whom he joined as a solo singer in his evangelistic work. His books of *Gospel Hymns* and *Sacred Songs and Solos* have been translated into many languages. He became blind in 1903, and died in Brooklyn, Aug. 13, 1908.

Santa Ana, ANTONIO LOPEZ DE, military officer; born in Jalapa, Mexico, Feb. 21, 1798; began his military career in 1821 in the revolution by which Mexico achieved its independence of Spain. Imperious, disobedient, and revengeful, he was dismissed from the service. A keen intriguer, he secured the overthrow of the existing government in Mexico in 1828. He was a brave and rather successful military leader, and led insurrection after insurrection, until in March, 1833, he obtained his election to the Presidency of the republic of Mexico. He was a favorite with the army, but unpopular with the natives. There were repeated insurrections during his administration, and finally, discontents in Texas broke out into revolution. Santa Ana took the field in person against the revolutionists, but was finally defeated at San Jacinto and taken prisoner, when he was deposed from the Presidency. In taking part in defending Vera Cruz against the French in 1837 he was wounded and lost a leg by amputation.



ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANA.

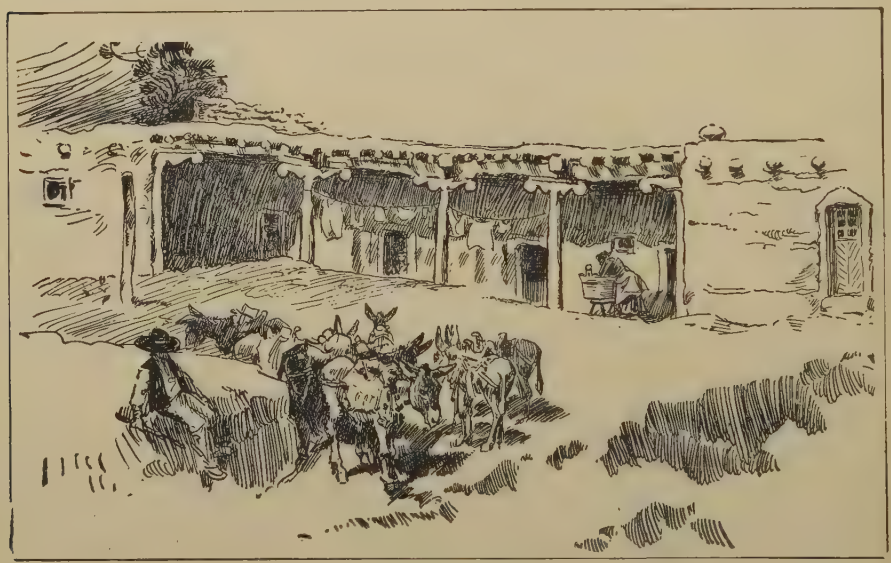
In the long contest between the Federalists and Centralists, taking part with the former, he was virtually dictator of Mexico from Oct. 10, 1841, to June 4, 1844, under the title of provisional President. He was constitutional President from June 4 to Sept. 20, 1844, when he was deposed by a new revolution, taken prisoner near Tlacolula, Jan. 15, 1845, and banished for ten years. He took up his residence in Cuba, where he secretly negotiated for the betrayal of his country to the United States. He was allowed to pass through Commodore Conner's fleet into Mexico, where he was appointed generalissimo of the army, and in December was again elected provisional President. With an army of 20,000 men he lost the battle of Buena Vista. He was afterwards defeated in battle at Cerro Gordo, and about the middle of September, 1847, was driven with nearly 2,000 followers from the city of Mexico. He was deposed, and in April, 1848, fled from the country to Jamaica, W. I. He returned to Mexico in 1853, where he was received with great enthusiasm and appointed President for one year, after which time he was to call a constitutional Congress; but he fomented a new revolution by which he was de-

clared President for life, with power to appoint his successor. He began to rule despotically, and was soon confronted by a revolution led by General Alvarez. After a struggle of two years, he signed his unconditional abdication, and sailed for Cuba, Aug. 16, 1855.

He afterwards spent two years in Venezuela, and thence went to St. Thomas. During the French military occupation of Mexico he appeared there and pledged himself to take no part in public affairs. But his passion for intrigue could not be repressed, and having issued a manifesto calculated to raise a disturbance in his favor, General Bazaine ordered him to quit the country forever in May, 1864. Some time afterwards, the Emperor Maximilian made him grand-marshal of the empire; but in 1865, having been implicated in a conspiracy against the Emperor, he fled to St. Thomas. In 1867 he again made an attempt to gain ascendency in Mexico, but was taken prisoner at Vera Cruz and condemned to be shot. President Juarez pardoned him on condition of his quitting Mexico forever. He came to the United States. After the death of Juarez he was permitted to return to his native country, and afterwards lived in seclusion in the city of Mexico, where he died, June 20, 1876.

Santa Barbara, a city and county seat of Santa Barbara county, Cal.; one of the most noted winter resorts on the Pacific coast; popularly known as the American Mentone. The first visit known to have been made to its harbor by a white man was in 1603 by Sebastian Vizaino. Neve established a presidio here in 1782, which was still in use on the arrival of Frémont. Pop. (1910), 11,659.

Santa Fe, a city, capital of the State of New Mexico, and county-seat of Santa Fé county; believed to be the oldest city in the United States. It still exhibits many relics of bygone generations. The streets are crooked and narrow; many of the buildings are of adobe; and among its interesting features are the Church of San Miguel, erected about 1550, and rebuilt in 1710 after having been destroyed by the Indians; the governor's palace, a long, one-storied building with walls 5 feet thick, erected in 1598; and the Cathedral of San Francisco, built around a similarly named structure, whose records go back as far as 1622. In 1541 Santa Fé was a thrifty Indian pueblo, with a population of about 15,000. The



A SANTA FÉ HOUSE.

Spaniards occupied the place about 1605, made slaves of the inhabitants, and began exploiting the rich veins of gold and silver in the town and vicinity. They continued in control till about 1680, when the Indians rose in revolt, drove out the Spaniards, and not only closed the mines but effaced all indications of their existence. In 1692 the Spaniards again acquired control of the town under Vargas, and maintained it till 1821, when Mexico secured its independence of Spain. Gen. Stephen W. Kearny took possession of the town in the name of the United States in 1846; the territory was ceded to the United States in 1848; and the city became the capital of the newly organized Territory of New Mexico in 1851. Pop. (1910), 5,072.

Santa Rosa Island, BATTLE ON. Fort Pickens stands on Santa Rosa Island, off the harbor of Pensacola. In June, 1861, the 6th New York (Zouave) Regiment, Col. William Wilson, arrived there as a part of the defenders of the fort. There was also a small blockading squadron near. On the night of Sept. 2 a party from Fort Pickens under Lieutenant Shepley burned the dry-dock at the navy-yard at Warrington, and on the night of the 13th about 100 men under Lieut. J. H. Russell, of Commodore Merwin's flag-ship *Colorado*, crossed over to the navy-yard and burned the *Judah*, then fitting out for a privateer. There were then near the navy-yard about 1,000 Confederate soldiers. These daring feats aroused the Confederates, and they became aggressive. Early in October they made an attempt to surprise and capture Wilson's Zouaves on Santa Rosa Island. About 1,400 picked men, commanded by General Anderson, crossed over from Pensacola in several steamboats, and at 2 A.M. on the 9th landed 4 or 5 miles eastward of the Zouave camp. They marched upon the camp in three columns, drove in the pickets, and completely surprised the Zouaves. The war-cry of the Confederates was "Death to Wilson! no quarter!" The Zouaves fought desperately in the intense darkness while being driven back to the shelter of the batteries, 400 yards from Fort Pickens. There were only 133 effective men. While falling back they were met by Major Vogdes with two companies, which were followed by two other companies, when the combined force charged upon the Confederates, who, having plundered and burned the Zouave camp, were in a disorganized state. They were driven in confusion to their vessels, and were assailed by volleys of bullets as they moved off. One of the vessels was so riddled by bullets that it sank. In this affair the Nationals lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners, sixty-four men. Among the latter was Major Vogdes. The Confederates lost about 150, including those who were drowned.

Santana, PEDRO, statesman; born in Hincha, Santo Domingo, June 29, 1801; studied law; appointed brigadier-general and served in the rebellion against the Haitian government in 1844; led 2,400 men, with whom he defeated the southern army of 15,000 on March 19; elected President in November of the same year; favored the movement for the annexation of Santo Domingo to the United States which was defeated by Baez. He died in Santo Domingo, June 14, 1864.

Santee Indians, originally a family of the SIOUX INDIANS (*q. v.*). In 1899 there were two branches at the Santee agency in Nebraska, the Santee Sioux of Flandreau, numbering 296, and the Santee Sioux proper, numbering 1,019.

Santiago, MILITARY OPERATIONS AT. See SPAIN, WAR WITH.

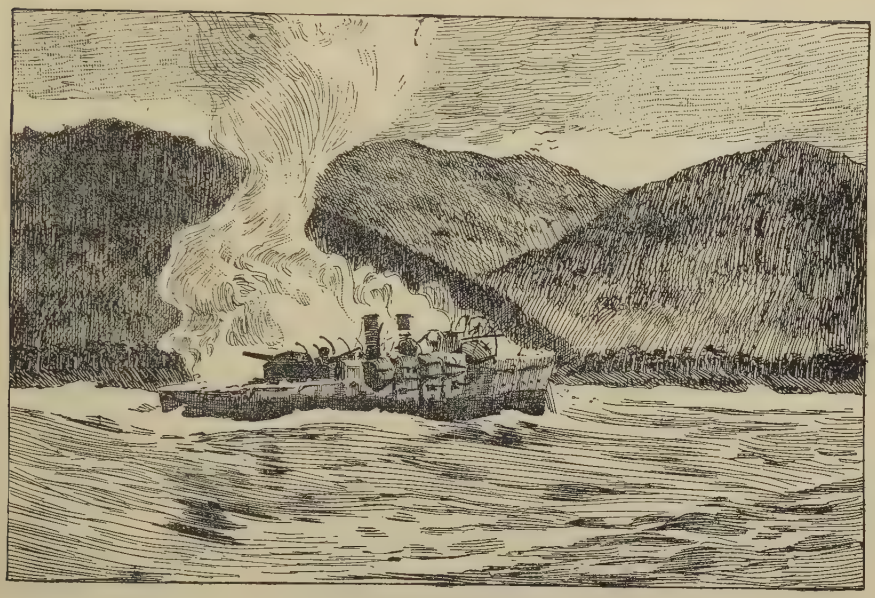
SANTIAGO, NAVAL BATTLE OF

Santiago, NAVAL BATTLE OF. See also SAMPSON, WILLIAM THOMAS; SCHLEY, WINFIELD SCOTT; SPAIN, WAR WITH. United States Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, in a narrative of the American-Spanish War, gives the following graphic history of the great naval engagement off the entrance to the harbor of Santiago de Cuba on July 3, 1898: _____

It matters little now why Cervera pushed open the door of Santiago Harbor and rushed out to ruin and defeat. The admiral himself would have the world un-

derstand that he was forced out by ill-advised orders from Havana and Madrid. Very likely this is true. It did not occur to the Spaniards that the entire American army had been flung upon El Caney and San Juan, and that there were no reserves. Their own reports, moreover, from the coast were wild and exaggerated, so that, deceived by these as well as by the daring movements and confident attitude of the American army, they concluded that the city was menaced by not less than 50,000 men. Under these conditions Santiago would soon be surrounded, cut off, starved, and taken. It is true that Admiral Cervera had announced that if the Americans entered Santiago he would shell and destory the city, and he would probably have done so, with complete Spanish indifference to the wanton brutality of such an act. But it is difficult to see how this performance would have helped the army or saved the fleet. With the American army on the heights of San Juan, and extending its lines, the ultimate destruction or capture of the entire squadron was a mere question of time. The process might be made more or less bloody, but the final outcome could not be avoided, and was certain to be complete. On the other hand, a wild rush out of the harbor might result possibly in the escape of one or more ships, and such an escape, properly treated in official despatches, could very well be made to pass in Spain for a victory. In remaining, there could be nothing but utter ruin, however long postponed. In going out, there was at least a chance, however slight, of saving something. So Cervera was ordered to leave the harbor of Santiago. He would have liked to go by night, but the narrow entrance glared out of the darkness brilliant with the white blaze of the search-lights, and beyond lay the enemy, veiled in darkness, waiting and watching. The night was clearly impossible. It must be daylight, if at all. So on Sunday morning at half-past nine the Spanish fleet with bottled steam came out of the harbor with a rush, the flag-ship *Maria Teresa* leading; then the other three cruisers, about 800 yards apart; then, at 1,200 yards distance, the two crack Clyde-built torpedo-boat destroyers *Furor* and *Pluton*. As Admiral Sampson was to meet General Shafter that morning at Siboney, the *New York* had started to the eastward, and was 4 miles away from her station when, at the sound of the guns, she swung round and rushed after the running battle-ships, which she could never quite overtake. It was a cruel piece of ill fortune that the admiral, who had made every arrangement for the fight, should, by mere chance of war, have been deprived of his personal share in it. Equally cruel was the fortune which had taken Captain Higginson and the *Massachusetts* on that day to Guantanamo to coal. These temporary absences left (beginning at the westward) the *Brooklyn, Texas, Iowa, Oregon, Indiana,* and the two converted yachts *Gloucester* and *Vixen* lying near inshore, to meet the escaping enemy. Quick eyes on the *Iowa* detected first the trailing line of smoke in the narrow channel. Then the

THE RELATIVE POSITIONS OF THE SHIPS IN THE BATTLE OF JULY 3, 1898, OFF SANTIAGO.



THE LAST OF THE ALMIRANTE OQUENDO.

Brooklyn saw them, then all the fleet, and there was no need of the signal "enemy escaping," which went up on the *Iowa* and *Brooklyn*. Admiral Sampson's order had long since been given: "If the enemy tries to escape, the ships must close and engage as soon as possible and endeavor to sink his vessels or force them to run ashore." Every ship was always stripped for action, each captain on the station knew this order, his crew needed no other, and the perfect execution of it was the naval battle at Santiago.

The Spanish ships came out at 8 to 10 knots speed, cleared the Diamond Shoal, and then turned sharply to the westward. As they issued forth they opened a fierce, rapid, but ill-directed fire with all guns, which shrouded them in smoke. The missiles fell most thickly perhaps about the *Indiana* and *Brooklyn*, the two ships at the opposite ends of the crescent line, but seemed also to come in a dense flight over the *Oregon* and the rest. Around the *Indiana* the projectiles tore the water into foam, and the *Brooklyn*, which the Spaniards had some vague plan of disabling, because they believed her to be the one fast ship, was struck twenty-five times, but not seriously injured. The Spanish attack, with its sudden burst of fire, was chiefly in the first rush, for it was soon drowned in the fierce reply. The American crews were being mustered for Sunday inspection when the enemy was seen. They were always prepared for action, and as the signal went up the men were already at quarters. There was no need for Admiral Sampson's distant signal to close in and attack, for that was what they did.

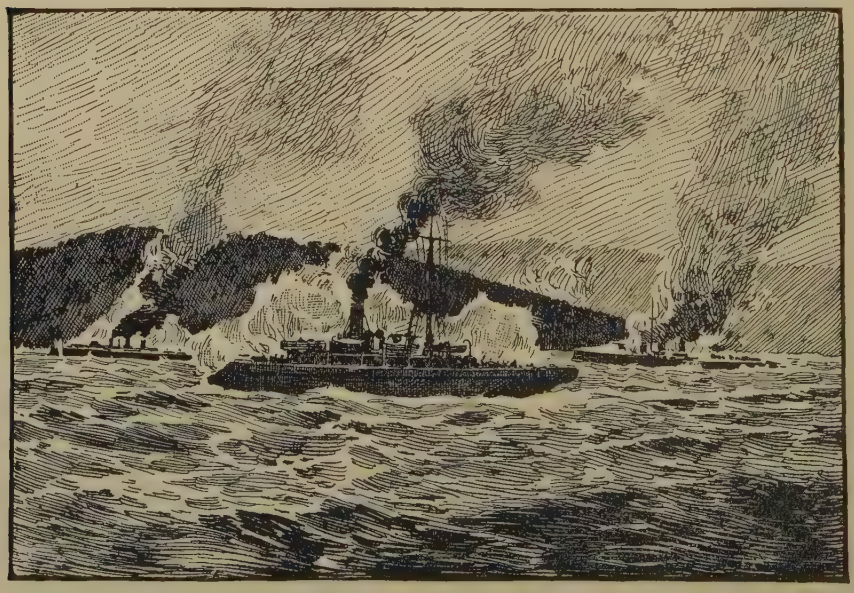
The only disadvantage at the outset was that they were under low steam, and it took time to gather way, so that the Spaniards, with a full head of steam, gained in the first rush. But this did not check the closing in, nor the heavy broadsides which were poured upon the Spanish ships as they came by and turned to the westward. Then it was that the *Maria Teresa* and the *Oquendo* received their death-wounds. Then it was that a 13-inch shell from the *Indiana* struck the *Teresa*, exploding under the quarter-deck; and that the broadsides of the *Iowa*, flung on each cruiser as it headed her in turn, and of the *Oregon* and *Texas*, tore

the sides of the *Oquendo*, the *Vizcaya*, and the flag-ship. The Spanish fire sank under that of the American gunners, shooting coolly as if at target practice, and sweeping the Spanish decks with a fire which drove the men from the guns. On went the Spanish ships in their desperate flight, the American ships firing rapidly and steadily upon them, always closing in, and beginning now to gather speed. The race was a short one to two of the Spanish ships, fatally wounded in the first savage encounter.

In little more than half an hour the Spanish flag-ship *Maria Teresa* was headed to the shore, and at a quarter past ten she was a sunken, burning wreck upon the beach at Nima Nima, a distance of about 6 miles from Santiago. Fifteen minutes later, and half a mile farther on, the *Oquendo* was beached near Juan Gonzales, a mass of flames, shot to pieces, and a hopeless wreck. For these two ships of the Spanish navy, flight and fight were alike over.

At the start, the *Brooklyn*, putting her helm to port, had gone round, bearing away from the land, and then steamed to the westward, so that, as she was the fastest in our squadron, she might be sure to head off the swiftest Spanish ship. In the lead with the *Brooklyn* was the *Texas*, holding the next position in the line. But the *Oregon* was about to add to the laurels she had already won in her great voyage from ocean to ocean. With a burst of speed which astonished all who saw her, and which seemed almost incredible in a battle-ship, she forged ahead to the second place in the chase, for such it had now become. The *Teresa* and *Oquendo* had gone to wreck, torn by the fire of all the ships. The *Vizcaya* had also suffered severely, but struggled on, pursued by the leading ships, and under their fire, especially that of the *Oregon*, until, at a quarter past eleven, she too was turned to the shore and beached, at Acerraderos, 15 miles from Santiago, a shattered, blazing hulk.

In the mean time the two torpedo-boats, coming out last from the harbor, about ten o'clock, had made a rush to get by the American ships; but their high speed availed them nothing. The secondary batteries of the battle-ships were turned upon them with disastrous effect, and they also met an enemy especially reserved for them.



THE GLOUCESTER AND THE SPANISH TORPEDO-BOATS.

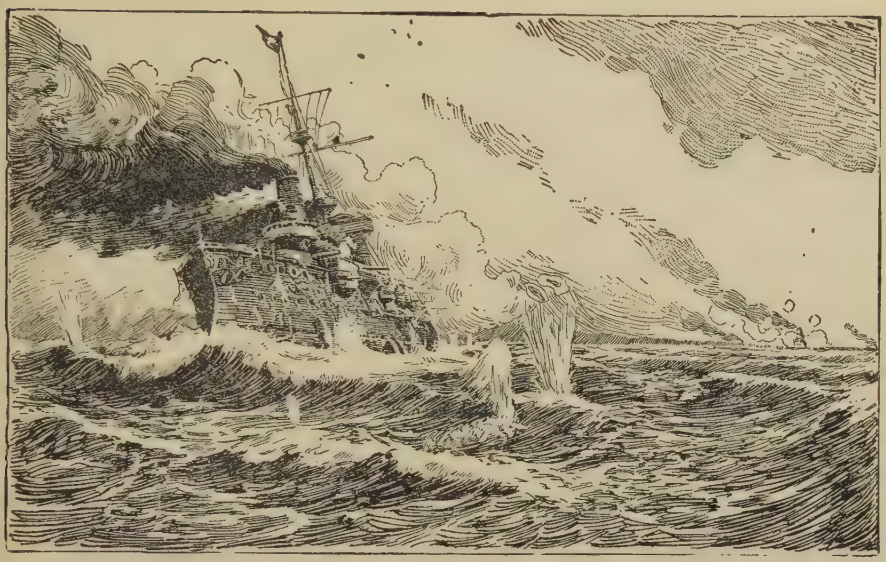
The *Gloucester*, a converted yacht, with no armor, but with a battery of small rapid-fire guns, was lying inshore when the Spaniards made their break for liberty. Undauntedly firing her light shells at the great cruisers as they passed, the *Gloucester* waited, gathering steam, for the destroyers. The moment these boats appeared, Lieutenant-Commander Wainwright, unheeding the fire of the Socapa battery, drove the *Gloucester* straight upon them at top speed, giving them no time to use their torpedoes, even if they had so desired. The fierce, rapid, well-directed fire of the *Gloucester* swept the decks of the torpedo-boats, and tore their upper works and sides. Shattered by the shells from the battle-ships, and overwhelmed by the close and savage attack of the *Gloucester*, which fought in absolute disregard of the fire from either ships or shore, the race of the torpedo-boat destroyers was soon run. Within twenty minutes of their rush from the harbor's mouth the *Furor* was beached and sunk, and the *Pluton* had gone down in deep water. At the risk of their lives the officers and men of the *Gloucester* boarded their sinking enemies, whose decks looked like shambles, and saved all those who could be saved. There were but few to rescue. Nineteen were taken from the *Furor*, twenty-six from the *Pluton;* all the rest of the sixty-four men on each boat were killed or drowned. It is worth while to make a little comparison here. The *Furor* and *Pluton* were 370 tons each, with a complement together of 134 men. They had together four 11-pounders, four 6-pounders, and four Maxim guns, in addition to their torpedoes. The *Gloucester* was of 800 tons, with ninety-three men, four 6-pounders, four 3-pounders, and two Colt automatic guns. The Spanish ships were fatally wounded probably by the secondary batteries of the battle-ships, but they were hunted down and destroyed by the *Gloucester*, which, regardless of the fire of the Socapa battery, closed with them and overwhelmed them. There is a very interesting exhibition here of the superior quality of the American sailor. The fierce, rapid, gallant attack of the *Gloucester* carried all before it, and showed that spirit of daring sea-fighting without which the best ships and the finest guns are of little avail, and which has made the English-speaking man the victor on the ocean from the days of the Armada.

When the *Vizcaya* went ashore at a quarter past eleven, only one Spanish ship remained, the *Cristobal Colon*. She was the newest, the fastest, and the best of the squadron. With their bottled steam, all the Spanish cruisers gained at first, while the American ships were gathering and increasing their pressure, but the *Colon* gained most of all. She did, apparently, comparatively little firing, kept inside of her consorts, hugging the shore, and then raced ahead, gaining on all the American ships except the *Brooklyn*, which kept on outside to head her off. When the *Vizcaya* went ashore, the *Colon* had a lead of about 6 miles over the *Brooklyn* and the *Oregon*, which had forged to the front, with the *Texas* and *Vixen* following at their best speed. As the *New York* came tearing along the coast, striving with might and main to get into the fight, now so nearly done, Admiral Sampson saw, after he passed the wreck of the *Vizcaya*, that the American ships were overhauling the Spaniard. The *Colon* had a contract speed 5 knots faster than the contract speed of the *Oregon*. But the Spaniard's best was 7 knots below her contract speed, while the *Oregon*, fresh from her 14,000 miles of travel, was going a little faster than her contract speed, a very splendid thing, worthy of much thought and consideration as to the value of perfect and honest workmanship done quite obscurely in the builder's yard, and of the skill, energy, and exact training which could then get more than any one had a right to expect from both ship and engines. On they went, the Americans coming ever nearer, until at last, at ten minutes before one, the *Brooklyn* and the *Oregon* opened fire. A thirteen-inch shell from the great battle-ship, crushing her way at top speed through the water, fell in the sea beyond the *Colon;* the eight-inch shells of the *Brooklyn* began to drop about her; more big shells from the *Oregon* turret followed; and then, without firing another shot, the Spaniard hauled down her flag and ran at full speed ashore upon the beach at Rio Tarquino, 45 miles from Santiago. Captain Cook of the *Brooklyn* boarded her, received the

surrender, and reported it to Admiral Sampson, who had come up finally just in time to share in the last act of the drama. The *Colon* was only slightly hurt by shells, but it was soon found that the Spaniards, to whom the point of honor is very dear, had opened and broken her sea-valve after surrendering her, and that she was filling fast. The *New York* pushed her in nearer the shore, and she sank, comparatively uninjured, in shoal water.

So the fight ended. Every Spanish ship which had dashed out of the harbor in the morning was a half-sunken wreck on the Cuban coast at half-past one. The officers and men of the *Iowa*, assisted by the *Ericsson* and *Hist*, took off the Spanish crews from the red-hot decks and amid the exploding batteries and ammunition of the *Vizcaya*. The same work was done by the *Gloucester* and *Harvard* for the *Oquendo* and *Maria Teresa*. From the water and the surf, from the beaches, and from the burning wrecks, at greater peril than they had endured all day, American officers and crews rescued their beaten foes. A very noble conclusion to a very perfect victory. The Spanish lost, according to their own accounts and the best estimates, 350 killed or drowned, 160 wounded, and ninety-nine officers and 1,675 men prisoners, including, of course, those on the *Furor* and *Pluton*, as already given. The American loss was one man killed and one wounded, both on the *Brooklyn*. Such completeness of result and such perfection of execution are as striking here as at Manila, and Europe, which had been disposed at first to belittle Manila, saw at Santiago that these things were not accidental, and considered the performances of the American navy in a surprised and flattering, but by no means happy, silence. At Santiago the Spaniards had the best types of modern cruisers, three built by British workmen in Spanish yards, and one, the *Colon*, in Italy, while the torpedo-boat destroyers were fresh from the Clyde, and the very last expression of English skill. The American ships were heavier in armament and armor, but much slower. The Americans could throw a heavier weight of metal, but the Spaniards had more quick-fire guns, and ought to have been able to fire at the rate of seventy-seven more shots in five minutes than their opponents. According to the contract speed, the Spanish cruisers had a great advantage over all their American opponents, with the exception of the *Brooklyn*, and of the *New York*, which was absent. If they had lived up to their qualities as set down in every naval register, they ought to have made a most brilliant fight, and some of them ought to have escaped. They also had the advantage of coming out under a full head of steam, which their opponents lacked, and yet in less than two hours all but one were shattered wrecks along the shore, and in less than two hours more that one survivor had been run down and had met the same fate. It is no explanation to say, what we know now to be true, that the *Colon* did not have her 10-inch guns, that the *Vizcaya* was foul-bottomed, that much of the ammunition was bad, and the other ships more or less out of order. One of the conditions of naval success, just as important as any other, is that the ships should be kept in every respect in the highest possible efficiency, and that the best work of which the machine and the organization are capable should be got out of them. The Americans fulfilled these conditions, the Spaniards did not; the *Oregon* surpassed all that the most exacting had a right to demand; the *Colon* and *Vizcaya* did far less; hence one reason for American victory. It is also said with truth that the Spanish gunnery was bad, but this is merely stating again that they fell short in a point essential to success. They fired with great rapidity as they issued from the harbor, and although most of the shots went wide, many were anything but wild, for the *Brooklyn* was hit twenty-five times, the *Iowa* repeatedly, and the other ships more or less. When the American fire fell upon them, their fire, as at Manila, slackened, became ineffective, and died away. Again it was shown that the volume and accuracy of the American fire were so great that the fire of the opponents was smothered, and that the crews were swept away from the guns. The overwhelming American victory was due not to the shortcomings of the Spaniards, but to the efficiency of the navy of the United States and to the quality of the crews. The officers and seamen, the gunners and engineers, surpassed the

THE DESTRUCTION OF CERVERA'S FLEET, SANTIAGO



THE LAST OF CERVERA'S FLEET.

Spaniards in their organization and in their handling of the machinery they used. They were thoroughly prepared; no surprise was possible to them; they knew just what they meant to do when the hour of battle came, and they did it coolly, effectively, and with perfect discipline. They were proficient and accurate marksmen, and got the utmost from their guns as from their ships. Last, and most important of all, they had that greatest quality of a strong, living, virile race, the power of daring, incessant, dashing attack, with no thought of the punishment they might themselves be obliged to take. The whole war showed, and the defeat of Cervera most conspicuously, that the Spaniards had utterly lost the power of attack, a sure sign of a broken race, and for which no amount of fortitude in facing death can compensate.

No generous man can fail to admire and to praise the despairing courage which held El Caney and carried Cervera's fleet out of the narrow channel of Santiago; but it is not the kind of courage which leads to victory, such as that was which sent American soldiers up the hills of San Juan and into the blood-stained village streets of El Caney, or which made the American ships swoop down, carrying utter destruction, upon the flying Spanish cruisers.

Thus the long chase of the Spanish fleet ended in its wreck and ruin beneath American guns. As one tells the story, the utter inadequacy of the narrative to the great fact seems painfully apparent. One wanders among the absorbing details which cross and recross the reader's path, full of interest and infinite in their complexity. The more details one gathers puzzling what to keep and what to reject, the denser seems the complexity, and the dimmer and more confused the picture. The historian writing calmly in the distant future will weave them into a full and dispassionate narrative; the antiquarian will write monographs on all incidents, small or large, with unwearying patience; the naval critic and expert will even now draw many technical and scientific lessons from everything that happened, and will debate and dispute about it, to the great advantage of himself and his profession. And yet these are not the things which appeal now or will appeal in the days to come, to the hearts of men. The details, the number of shots, the ranges, the part taken by each ship, the positions of the fleet—all alike have begun to fade from recollection even now,

and will grow still dimmer as the years recede. But out of the mist of events and the gathering darkness of passing time the great fact and the great deed stand forth for the American people and their children's children, as white and shining as the Santiago channel glaring under the search-lights through the Cuban night.

They remember, and will always remember, that hot summer morning, and the anxiety, only half whispered, which overspread the land. They see, and will always see, the American ships rolling lazily on the long seas, and the sailors just going to Sunday inspection. Then comes the long, thin trail of smoke drawing nearer the harbor's mouth. The ships see it, and we can hear the cheers ring out, for the enemy is coming, and the American sailor rejoices mightily to know that the battle is set. There is no need of signals, no need of orders. The patient, long-watching admiral has given direction for every chance that may befall. Every ship is in place; every ship rushes forward, closing in upon the advancing enemy, fiercely pouring shells from broadside and turret. There is the *Gloucester* firing her little shots at the great cruisers, and then driving down to grapple with the torpedo-boats. There are the Spanish ships, already mortally hurt, running along the shore, shattered and breaking under the fire of the *Indiana*, the *Iowa*, and the *Texas;* there is the *Brooklyn* racing by to head the fugitives, and the *Oregon* dealing death-strokes as she rushes forward, forging to the front, and leaving her mark everywhere as she goes. It is a captains' fight, and they all fight as if they were one man with one ship. On they go, driving through the water, firing steadily and ever getting closer, and presently the Spanish cruisers, helpless, burning, twisted wrecks of iron, are piled along the shore, and we see the younger officers and the men of the victorious ships perilling their lives to save their beaten enemies. We see Wainwright on the *Gloucester*, as eager in rescue as he was swift in fight to avenge the *Maine*. We hear Philip cry out: "Don't cheer. The poor devils are dying." We watch Evans as he hands back the sword to the wounded Eulate, and then writes in his report: "I cannot express my admiration for my magnificent crew. So long as the enemy showed his flag, they fought like American seamen; but when the flag came down, they were as gentle and tender as American women." They all stand out to us, these gallant figures, from admiral to seaman, with an intense human interest, fearless in fight, brave and merciful in the hour of victory.

And far away along the hot ridges of the San Juan heights lie the American soldiers, who have been fighting, and winning, and digging intrenchments for forty-eight hours, sleeping little and eating less. There they are under the tropic sun that Sunday morning, and presently the heavy sound of guns comes rolling up the bay, and is flung back with many echoes from the surrounding hills. It goes on and on, so fast, so deep and loud, that it is like continuous thunder filling all the air. A battle is on; they know that. Wild rumors begin to fly about, drifting up from the coast. They hear that the American fleet is coming into the harbor; then for an hour that it has been defeated; and then the truth begins to come, and before nightfall they know that the Spanish fleet is no more, and the American soldier cheers the American sailor, and is filled anew with the glow of victory, and the assurance that he and his comrades have not fought and suffered and died in vain.

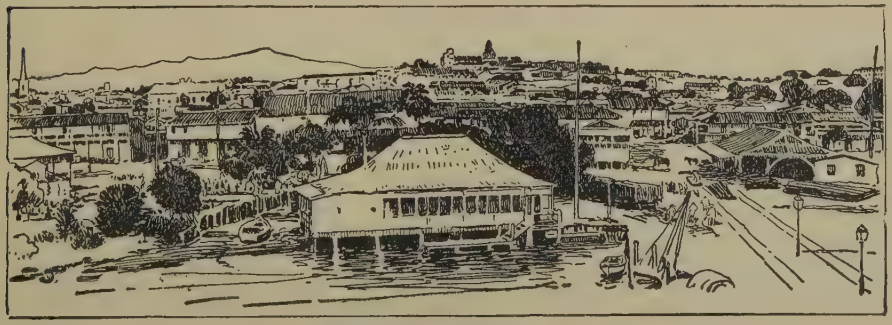
The thought of the moment is of the present victory, but there are men there who recognize the deeper and more distant meanings of that Sunday's work, now sinking into the past. They are stirred by the knowledge that the sea-power of Spain has perished, and that the Spanish West Indies, which Columbus gave to Leon and Castile, shall know Spain no more. They lift the veil of the historic past, and see that on that July morning a great empire had met its end, and passed finally out of the New World, because it was unfit to rule and govern men. And they and all men see now, and ever more clearly will see, that in the fight off Santiago another great fact had reasserted itself for the consideration of the world. For that fight had displayed once more the victorious sea spirit of a conquering race. It is the spirit of the Jomsberg Viking, who, alone and wounded, springs into the sea from his sinking boat with defiance on

SANTIAGO FROM THE HARBOR.

his lips. It comes down through Grenville and Drake and Howard and Blake, on to Perry and Macdonough and Hull and Decatur. Here on this summer Sunday it has been shown again to be as vital and as clear as ever, even as it was with Nelson dying at Trafalgar, and with Farragut and his men in the fights of bay and river more than thirty years before.

Santiago de Cuba, the second city in size on the island, is probably the oldest city of any size on this hemisphere, having been founded by Velasquez in 1514. It fronts on a beautiful bay 6 miles long and 2 miles wide, on the southeastern coast of Cuba, 100 miles west of Cape Maysi. The mean temperature in summer is 88°; in winter, 82°. It was formerly regarded as very unhealthy, yellow fever being prevalent throughout the year and small-pox epidemic at certain times. These conditions were due to the lack of sanitary and hygienic measures, all refuse matter, as well as dead dogs, cats, chickens, etc., being thrown into the streets to decay and fill the air with disease germs. A railroad, called the Sabanilla and Marote, runs from the city to San Luis, 25 miles distant, with a branch to Alto Songo, 12 miles in length. It is largely owned and controlled by citizens of the United States. Santiago is the headquarters for three large mining plants owned by United States citizens, viz., the Jurugua, the Spanish-American, and the Sigua, together representing the investment of about $8,000,000; the last named are not in operation. Santiago is the capital of the province and oriental region. There are a number of tobacco factories, but the chief business is the exportation of raw materials and the importation of manufactured goods and provisions. Sugar, iron ore, manganese, mahogany, hides, wax, cedar, and tobacco are exported to the United States.

In the American-Spanish War this city was made the objective-point of the American army. For the details of this short campaign see SPAIN, WAR WITH. The Spanish fleet, under command of Admiral Cervera, entered the harbor of San-



GENERAL VIEW OF SANTIAGO.

tiago, and on July 3, directed by imperative orders from the governor-general at Havana, emerged into the sea through the narrow mouth of the bay, and sought to escape the large blockading and fighting squadron under command of Rear-Admiral Sampson. The Spanish fleet had no sooner cleared the entrance to the harbor when the object of the movement was discerned by the Americans, and the fleet, under the command of Rear-Admiral Schley during the temporary absence of Rear-Admiral Sampson, at once opened the battle, which resulted in the destruction of all the Spanish vessels. For details of this notable engagement see SANTIAGO, NAVAL BATTLE OF; SAMPSON, WILLIAM THOMAS; and SCHLEY, WINFIELD SCOTT.

After the surrender of the army and the territory under his control by the Spanish commander-in-chief in the field, BRIG.-GEN. LEONARD WOOD (*q. v.*) was appointed the first American governor of the city and district. He found the city in a wretched sanitary condition, applied bold methods of reform, and so completely transformed the conditions which had existed for generations that, on the return to the United States of MAJ.-GEN. JOHN R. BROOKE (*q. v.*), the American governor-general of Cuba, General Wood was appointed to succeed him, with headquarters in Havana, which city, also under American administration, was soon made a model of healthful conditions.

The census of Cuba, taken under the direction of the United States War Department in 1899, showed a total population of the province of Santiago de Cuba of 327,716, and of the city, 45,478; the American census taken in 1907 showed a population of province, 455,086; city, 53,614.

Santo Domingo, one of the larger of the West India islands. The natives called it Haiti, the Spaniards Hispaniola, and afterwards by its present name. It was called Santo Domingo by Bartholomew Columbus for the double reason: 1. That it was discovered by his brother on Sunday—the Lord's day—and he spoke of it as Domina; and, 2. Dominica was the name of their father; so Bartholomew gave it the title of Santo Domingo. The island was discovered by Columbus in December, 1492, and at Isabella, on the north shore, was founded the first Spanish colony in the Western Hemisphere. The island is now divided between the republics of Santo Domingo and Haiti. The

DISCOVERY OF SANTO DOMINGO.
(After a sketch said to have been made by Columbus.)

THE CITY OF SANTO DOMINGO (From an old print).

town of Santo Domingo was founded Aug. 4, 1496. The natives were kind and friendly towards the discoverers. "So loving and tractable and peaceable are these people," Columbus wrote to Isabella, "that I declare to your majesties that there is not in this world a better nation or a better land. They love their neighbors as themselves. Their discourse is ever sweet and gentle, and accompanied with a smile." The Spaniards soon extirpated the natives by their cruel treatment of them, making them slaves to work in the mines, without any distinction of sex. For nearly half a century the Spanish settlements there were prosperous, and then for a while they were nearly desolated because of the drain of men from there to settle discovered regions in adjacent islands and the continent.

The natives made several attempts to recover their liberties from the Spanish invaders. In 1505 Ovando summoned the Spaniards to arms to subjugate the whole population of the island. In violation of a treaty, he seized the eastern portion of the island and hanged the cacique. A female cacique governed the western province of the island. She had been uniformly kind towards the Spaniards, and was beloved by her people. She was falsely accused of a design to exterminate the intruders. With this pretext as an excuse, Ovando, under the pretence of making her a friendly visit, marched towards her province with 300 foot soldiers and 70 horsemen. The queen received him with every token of honor, and feasted him for several days. At a preconcerted signal the Spaniards drew their swords, rushed on the defenceless Indians, bound them hand and foot, seized their beloved ruler, and setting fire to the building in which all the guests had assembled, left the bound victims to perish in the flames. Anacoana, the queen, was carried in chains to the Spanish capi-

tal, and there, without trial, was hanged. This terrible affair broke the spirit of the nation, and they never made further resistance to their Spanish masters. The inhabitants of the island, supposed to have numbered 100,000 when Columbus discovered it thirteen years before, were now reduced to 60,000. The natives of the Lucayo Islands, once numbering 120,000, had been so wasted in the mines of Santo Domingo and Cuba, under the lash of the Spaniards and by sickness and famine, that they had become extinct.

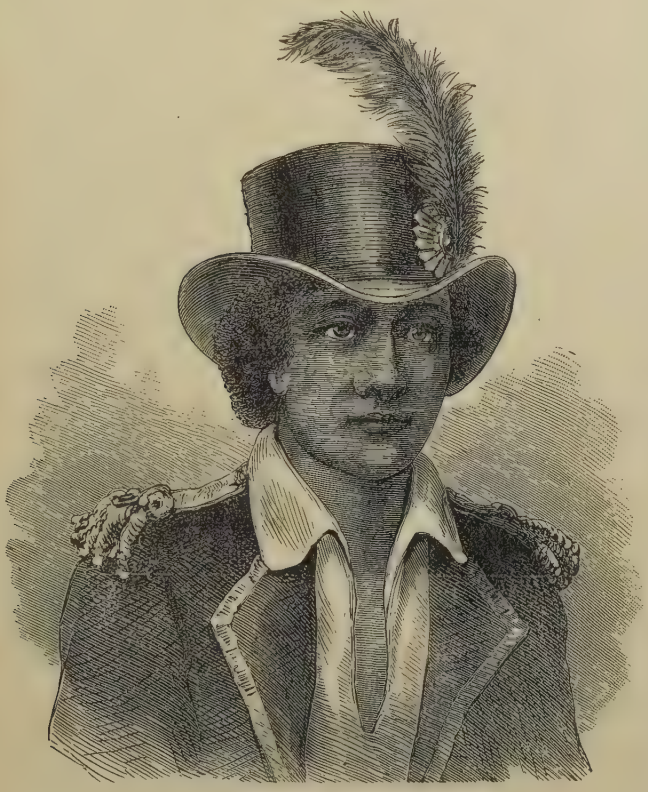
In 1509 Diego Columbus, who had married a daughter of the great Duke of Alva, and obtained a decree in confirmation of his title to the offices of his father, sailed from Spain as governor, or viceroy, of Santo Domingo, succeeding Ovando. He was accompanied by a numerous retinue of men and women of some of the first families in Spain, and with pomp and ceremony the young Columbus, with his "vice-regal queen," held a court which spread a halo of romance around the West Indian empire. From Santo Domingo were sent out expeditions to conquer Cuba and other islands, as well as points on the neighboring continent, and until the middle of the sixteenth century it was the heart of Spanish dominion in America.

A NATIVE TYPE.

M. de Ternay, when he superseded the Count de Moustier as French minister in the United States, applied to the government for money, arms, and ammunition for the relief of the island of Santo Domingo, then rent by civil discord. The influence of the Revolution in America had produced much commotion in France, and the first terrible throes of the French Revolution were felt in 1791. The vacillating and conflicting decrees of the French National Assembly on the subject of citizenship had given rise in Santo Domingo to a warm controversy as to the political rights of the free mulattoes. They were a class considerable in numbers and property, and the controversy was attended with some bloodshed. The slaves in the neighborhood of Cape Français, the northern district of the island, who were ten times more numerous than the white people and mulattoes united, had suddenly risen in insurrection, destroying all the sugar plantations on the rich plain of the cape, and threatening the city with destruction. Fugitives from this terrible scene fled to the United States, and thus gave emphasis to Ternay's request. The supplies he asked for towards the suppression of this rebellion were readily granted by the United States, in accordance with the spirit of the treaties with France in 1778.

Toussaint l'Ouverture, an able negro, became a trusted military leader in Haiti, or Santo Domingo, in 1791. When the English invaded the island in 1793, Toussaint, who had resisted the claims of the French to the island, perceiving that the best hopes of his race then centred in France, whose Assembly had proclaimed the freedom of the slaves, declared his fealty to the republic. He and his followers subdued both the English and Spaniards, and, in 1796, he was made commander-in-chief of the forces of the island.

He was rapidly advancing the prosperity of his people by wise and energetic measures, when a civil war broke out. Toussaint restored order, and, in January, 1801, the whole island became subject to his sway, and he assumed the government. A constitution was drawn up by which he was named President for life. Toussaint sent it to Bonaparte, who angrily exclaimed, "He is a revolted slave, whom we must punish; the honor of France is outraged." He sent out General Leclerc, his sister Pauline's husband, with 30,000 men and sixty-six war-vessels, to subdue the "usurper." Leclerc arrived in January, 1802. Toussaint regarded this armament as an instrument of enslavement for himself and his people, and a new war ensued, in which the French army was completely decimated by the sword and the more destructive yellow fever. Of Leclerc's troops, 20,000 perished, and 60,000 white people were massacred by the infuriated negroes. Peace was restored, and Toussaint was treacherously seized, taken to France, and starved to death in prison. Meanwhile, the black and mulatto population of Guadeloupe arose in insurrection, seized the French governor sent out by Bonaparte, declared the freedom of the slaves, and established a provisional government in October, 1801. They were subdued, and Bonaparte re-established slavery in the island and authorized the reopening of the slave-trade.



TOUSSAINT L'OUVERTURE.

The island was divided among several chiefs after the assassination of Dessalines, a self-constituted emperor, in 1806. The principal of these black chiefs was Henri Christophe in the northwest, and Pétion in the southwest. The eastern portion of the island was repossessed by Spain. Christophe assumed the functions of a monarch in 1811, with the title of King Henri I., and had the office made hereditary in his family. Wishing to establish commercial relations with Santo Domingo, the President of the United States sent an agent to Christophe in the summer of 1817. The latter and Pétion had lately established friendly relations between themselves in order to present a better front against the claims of the restored French monarchy. Instead of ordinary letters of credence as between independent states, this agent bore only a simple certificate of his appointment. Christophe expressed a desire for friendly relations with the United

States, but, standing upon his dignity, he declined to enter into any diplomatic relations not based on the usual formalities between independent nations. The United States government hesitated to recognize the independence of Haiti, and the mission of the agent was a failure.

In 1869 the governments of the United States and Haiti conferred on the subject of the annexation of the island of Santo Domingo to the United States. In November a treaty to that effect was made, but the United States Senate refused to ratify it. The President appointed a commission to visit the island, and their report in the spring of 1872 did not lead to a ratification, and the subject was dropped as a national measure. On Jan. 21, 1905, an agreement was signed by which the United States government guaranteed the territorial integrity of Santo Domingo, and further agreed to take charge of the finances of Santo Domingo, with a view to settling the claims against it.

The United States agreed to attempt to adjust both the foreign and domestic debts, and for that purpose to hold custom-houses, name employés, and collect the revenue, subject to inspection by the Santo Domingo government. Of the revenues, forty-five per cent. was to be paid to the Santo Domingo government for the public service, and the rest used to pay debts, foreign or domestic, as ascertained and liquidated, including interest. The system of duties and taxes was to be changed only in agreement with the President of the United States; but export duties upon Dominican products were to be reduced or abolished immediately by the Dominican government, but not increased; the public debt was not to be increased without the consent of the President of the United States. The agreement was to take effect only when approved by the United States Senate and the Dominican Congress.

This agreement was ratified by the American Senate, Feb. 25, 1907, and by the Dominican Congress, May 3d following. The chief creditors of the Republic had agreed to accept 50 to 55 per cent. for cash payment of their claims. It was estimated that $17,000,000 would be required for this purpose, and a New York bank agreed to provide $20,000,000, the balance being for the extinction of certain concessions and harbor monopolies and for the construction of railways and other public improvements. The bank thus became the sole creditor of the government. During the four years (1907–11) of the receivership, under the above agreement, the sum of $8,512,680 was segregated from the customs receipts and transmitted to New York for the service of the bonded debt. On Nov. 20, 1911, President Ramon Caceres was assassinated, and the United States sent down war-ships to maintain order and protect foreign interests.

Saratoga, PROPOSED STATE OF. Under Thomas Jefferson's plan for the creation of new States in what was then known as the Northwestern Territory, several committees of the Congress were appointed, which in 1784 reported a resolution for the division of the ceded and purchased territory into seventeen States, which were to be created in three tiers. The portion east of what was proposed to be called Illinoia was named Saratoga, and beyond it was a territory to which the name of Washington was given. Immediately south of Illinoia and Saratoga was what was then called, lacking a specific name, the Ninth State.

Saratoga, ATTACK UPON. Late in the fall of 1745 an expedition consisting of more than 500 French and Indians and a few disaffected warriors of the Six Nations, led by M. Marin, an active French officer, invaded the upper valley of the Hudson, and by their operations spread alarm as far south as the Hudson Highlands. They came down from Montreal, and reached Crown Point on Nov. 28th, intending to penetrate the valley of the Connecticut. At the suggestion of Father Piquet, the French *préfet apostolique* to Canada, who met the expedition at Crown Point, Marin determined to lead his party towards Albany and cut off the advancing English settlements. They passed up Lake Champlain, crossed over to the Hudson River, destroyed a lumber-yard on the site of Fort Edward, and approached the thriving settlement of Saratoga, at the junction of Fish Creek and the Hudson. It was a scattered little village, composed mostly of the tenants of Philip Schuyler, who owned mills and a large landed estate

there. Accompanied by Father Piquet, Marin, having laid waste nearly 50 miles of English settlements, fell upon the sleeping villagers at Saratoga at midnight (Nov. 28th), plundered everything of value, murdered Mr. Schuyler, burned a small ungarrisoned fort near by and most of the dwellings, and made 109 men, women, and children captives. The next morning the marauders turned their faces towards Canada with their prisoners. The fort was rebuilt, garrisoned, and called Fort Clinton; but late in 1747, unable to defend it against the French and Indians, it was burned by the English.

For an account of the battles of Sept. 19, 1777, and Oct. 7, 1777, which led to the surrender of Burgoyne, see BEMIS'S HEIGHTS, BATTLE OF; BURGOYNE, SIR JOHN.

Sargent, AARON AUGUSTUS, diplomatist; born in Newburyport, Mass., Sept. 28, 1827; learned the printer's trade; removed to California in 1849 and engaged in mining; studied law while editing the Nevada *Journal*, which he established, and was admitted to the bar in 1854. He was elected district attorney of Nevada county in 1856; vice-president of the Republican National Convention in 1860; served in Congress in 1860–72, and in the United States Senate in 1872–79; was appointed United States minister to Germany in 1882; and was offered the Russian mission, which he declined. He died in San Francisco, Cal., Aug. 14, 1887.

Sargent, CHARLES SPRAGUE, arboriculturist; born in Boston, Mass., April 24, 1841; graduated at Harvard University in 1862; served through the Civil War, attaining the rank of major; was director of the Arnold Aboretum of Harvard University from 1872; Arnold professor of aboriculture in Harvard University from 1878; editor of *Garden and Forests* in 1887–97; and author of *Report on the Forests of North America; Silva of North America; Catalogue of the Forest Trees of North America; Manual of the Trees of North America; Trees and Shrubs*, and many other works and reports.

Sargent, EPES, author; born in Gloucester, Mass., Sept. 27, 1813; received an academic education; became editor of the Boston *Evening Transcript* in 1846. His publications include *The Life and Services of Henry Clay; American Adventure by Land and Sea; Arctic Adventures by Sea and Land; Original Dialogues*, etc. He also edited the *Select Works of Benjamin Franklin; Works of Horace and James Smith*, etc. He died in Boston, Mass., Dec. 31, 1880.

Sargent, FRANK PIERCE, executive officer; born in East Orange, Vt., Nov. 18, 1854; early became a locomotive fireman; was Grand Chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen in 1885–1902; appointed by President McKinley a member of the Industrial Commission; declined post of chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing in 1900; member of the National Civic Federation; and United States Commissioner of Immigration from 1902 till his death in Washington, D. C., Sept. 4, 1908. He was beloved by labor men and by the railroad officials and was arbitrator of many disputes.

Sargent, HERBERT HOWLAND, jurist; born in Carlinville, Ill., Sept. 29, 1858; graduated at Blackburn University in 1878 and at the United States Military Academy in 1883; was on frontier duty till the outbreak of the war with Spain; and was appointed colonel in 1898; served at Santiago and Guantanamo, Cuba; was promoted captain, March 2, 1899, and appointed lieutenant-colonel in July following. In October he sailed for Manila with his regiment; fought against the insurgents in the island of Luzon; and commanded the assaulting forces during the action in which General Lawton was killed at San Mateo, Dec. 19, 1899. Promoted major U. S. A. in 1909. He is the author of *Napoleon Bonaparte's First Campaign; The Campaign of Marengo;* and *The Campaign of Santiago de Cuba*, for which he was personally complimented by President Roosevelt.

Sargent, JOHN OSBORNE, lawyer; born in Gloucester, Mass., Sept. 20, 1811; graduated at Harvard College in 1830; admitted to the bar in 1833; engaged extensively in journalism; associate editor of the *Courier and Enquirer* in 1838; founded the *Republic* (with Alexander C. Bullitt). His publications include a *Lecture on the Late Improvements in Steam Navigation and the Arts of Naval Warfare;* a version of Anastasius Grün's *Last Knight;* three pamphlets reviewing *The*

Rule in Minot's Case; and four numbers of *Chapters for the Times by a Berkshire Farmer.* He died in New York City, Dec. 28, 1891.

Sargent, JOHN SINGER, artist; born in Florence, Italy, in 1856; educated in Italy and Germany; came to the United States in 1876, and revisited it several times, chiefly to paint certain portraits; made his home in London from 1884; was commissioned to decorate the ends of the upper corridor of the new Boston public library, and chose for his subject the *Progress of Religion;* is a member of the American National Academy of Design, the American Academy of Arts and Letters, the Royal Academies of England and Berlin, and the French Institute, Officer of the Legion of Honor, etc. He is one of the leading portrait-painters of the day.

Sargent, NATHAN (pen-name OLIVER OLDSCHOOL), author; born in Pultney, Vt., May 5, 1794; admitted to the bar in 1816 and settled in Cahawba, Ala., where he became county and probate judge; removed to Philadelphia, Pa., in 1830; and established a Whig newspaper; and became Washington correspondent of the *United States Gazette.* He was sergeant-at-arms in Congress in 1849–51; commissioner of customs in 1861–67. He published *Life of Henry Clay;* and *Public Men and Events.* He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 2, 1875.

Sargent, WINTHROP, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 23, 1825; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1845 and at the Harvard Law School in 1847; practised in his native city. He was the author of *History of an Expedition against Fort Duquesne in 1775, under Major-General Braddock, Edited from Original Manuscripts; The Loyalist Poetry of the Revolution; The Journal of the General Meeting of the Cincinnati; Life and Career of Maj. John André; The Confederate States and Slavery,* etc. He died in Paris, France, May 18, 1870.

Sargent, WINTHROP, military officer; born in Gloucester, Mass., May 1, 1753; graduated at Harvard College in 1771; entered the military service in 1775; and became captain of Knox's artillery regiment in March, 1776, serving with it during the war, and engaging in the principal battles in the North, attaining the rank of major. Connected with the Ohio Company in 1786, Congress appointed him surveyor of the Northwest Territory, and he was made its first secretary. He was St. Clair's adjutant-general at the time of his defeat in 1791, when he was wounded; and was adjutant-general and inspector of Wayne's troops in 1794–95. He was made governor of the Northwest Territory in 1798. Mr. Sargent was a member of the Academy of Arts and Sciences, and of the Philosophical Society, Philadelphia. He died in New Orleans, La., June 3, 1820.

Sartain, JOHN, artist; born in London, England, Oct. 24, 1808; came to the United States and settled in Philadelphia in 1830; contributed engravings to *Graham's Magazine,* proprietor of *Campbell's Foreign Semi-Monthly Magazine;* and later had an interest in the *Electric Museum.* He had charge of the art department at the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia; produced many prints, among them *The County Election in Missouri; The Battle of Gettysburg,* etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 25, 1897.

Sassacus, Indian chief; born near Groton, Conn., about 1560; chief of the Pequod Indians, feared greatly by the settlers of the New England coast. In 1637 his tribe murdered several women at Wethersfield, and took two girls captive. On June 5, 1637, the colonists attacked the Pequod settlement on the Mystic River and won a victory. Sassacus, however, escaped to the Mohawks, by whom he was murdered the same month.

Sastean Indians, formerly inhabiting Siskiyou county, Cal., the region along the Klamath, and a portion of Oregon. At one time they had twenty-four villages, and numbered about 3,000. There are fewer than a score now living, some on the Grande Ronde reservation in Oregon, the others scattered about their former territory.

Satolli, FRANCIS, clergyman; born in Merciano, Italy, July 21, 1831. His education from early childhood was under the direction of Archbishop Pecci, subsequently Pope Leo XIII. After finishing his theological studies he became professor of dogmatic theology at Urban College of the Propaganda, Rome; was consecrated titular archbishop of Lepanto in 1888;

represented Pope Leo at the centenary of the Roman Catholic hierarchy in the United States, celebrated in Baltimore; and was the first Papal delegate to the United States (1893–96). Though in a delicate position, he manifested great wisdom and succeeded in settling several serious differences which had arisen in the Church in the United States. He was elevated to the cardinalate in 1895; appointed president of the Academy of Noble Ecclesiastics; and in July, 1900, made prefect of the Propaganda. He died in Rome, Italy, Jan. 3, 1910.

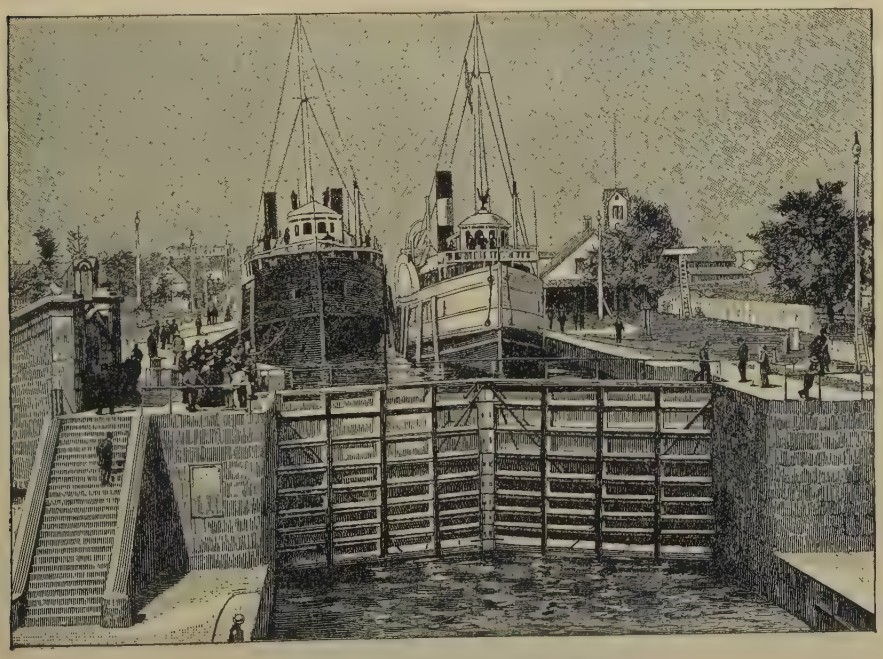
Satterlee, HERBERT LIVINGSTON, lawyer; born in New York, Oct. 31, 1863; graduated at Columbia College in 1883, and was admitted to the bar in 1885; was navigator of the New York naval battalion in 1891–95; captain of the naval militia in 1897–98; served during the war with Spain; was assistant secretary of the navy in 1908–09. He is the author of *Political History of the Province of New York*, etc.

Sauganash, THE, a half-breed leader, popularly known as Capt. Billy Caldwell; born in Canada about 1780. He was a chief of the Ottawas and Pottawattomies. He died in Council Bluffs, Ia., Sept. 28, 1841.

Saulsbury, ELI, statesman; born in Kent county, Del., Dec. 29, 1817; member of the State legislature, 1853–54; United States Senator, 1871–89. He opposed military interference in the Southern States during the reconstruction period. He died in Dover, Del., March 16, 1893.

Saulsbury, WILLARD, legislator; born in Kent county, Del., June 2, 1825; received a collegiate education; admitted to the bar and practised in Georgetown, Del.; attorney-general of the State in 1850–55; United States Senator in 1858–71; delivered an important speech on the State-rights resolution of Jefferson Davis, April 2, 1860; and became chancellor of Delaware in 1873. He died in Dover, April 6, 1882.

Sault de Ste. Marie Ship-canal. Saint Mary's Strait or River, connecting Lakes Superior and Huron, is 63 miles in length, and but for the St. Mary's Falls, or Sault Ste. Marie, would be navigable through-



A LOCK ON THE SAULT DE STE. MARIE SHIP-CANAL.

out its course for the largest vessels. These falls within the space of three-quarters of a mile have a fall of about 20 feet. Until the construction of a canal around them, they completely prevented the passage of vessels from one lake to the other. On May 19, 1855, the first ship-canal was opened, having been constructed at great expense by the State of Michigan. This canal was afterwards transferred to the United States, and in 1881 the government opened another and larger one, parallel with it. The lock in the latter was then the largest in the world. It is 515 feet long, 80 feet wide, and has a lift of 20 feet. It is built of granite, is furnished with every improved mechanism, and cost $1,000,000. To facilitate the increasing commerce of the lakes Congress passed an act for the construction of another and still larger lock, to cost $5,000,000. The Canadian government has also constructed a canal here, and the American and Canadian canals form a connecting link between the lower lakes and Lake Superior. Commerce and travel passing here consist primarily of through business. Through freight westward consists largely of what is known as "package freight," or general merchandise for distribution at and through upper lake ports. Westbound cargo freight consists chiefly of coal; eastward cargo freight includes iron ore as the principal item, and flour, grain, and lumber. In the season year 1892, the estimated value of freight that passed through the Sault Ste. Marie canals was $135,117,267; in the corresponding period of 1909 it was $626,104,173. For several years the tonnage and freight movement have far exceeded those of the Suez Canal.

Saunders, ALVIN, legislator; born in Fleming county, Ky., July 12, 1817; removed to the present State of Iowa in 1836; delegate to the Iowa constitutional convention in 1846; governor of the Nebraska Territory in 1861–67; and United States Senator from Nebraska in 1877–83. During this period he secured over 600,000 acres of land to his State by the rearrangement of the northern boundary. He died in Omaha, Neb., Nov. 1, 1899.

Saunders, FREDERICK, librarian; born in London, England, Aug. 14, 1807; came to the United States in 1837, and became city editor of the New York *Evening Post;* was made assistant librarian of the Astor Library in 1859, librarian in 1876, and was retired in 1896. He was the author of *New York in a Nut-shell; Memoir of the Great Metropolis; Story of the Discovery of the New World by Columbus,* etc. He died in New York, Dec. 12, 1902.

Saunders, ROMULUS MITCHELL, statesman; born in Caswell county, N. C., March 3, 1791; received a collegiate education; admitted to the bar in 1812; elected to Congress in 1821, 1823, 1825, and 1844. In the latter year he introduced the celebrated two-thirds rule into the Democratic National Convention, making it necessary for a nominee to receive two-thirds of the votes of all members present. He was appointed minister to Spain in 1845, where he offered $100,000,000 for the island of Cuba. He died in Raleigh, N. C., April 21, 1867.

Savage, JAMES, historian; born in Boston, Mass., July 13, 1784; graduated at Harvard College in 1803; admitted to the bar in 1807; served in the Massachusetts legislature. His publications include *John Winthrop's History of New England from 1630 to 1646;* and *Genealogical Dictionary of the First Settlers of New England, Showing Three Generations of Those Who Came Before May, 1692.* He died in Boston, Mass., March 8, 1873.

Savage, JOHN, author; born in Dublin, Ireland, Dec. 13, 1828; settled in New York City in 1848, and was employed as proof-reader on the New York *Tribune;* removed to Washington, D. C., in 1857, where he became editor of *The States,* the organ of Stephen A. Douglas. In the Civil War he served in the 69th New York Regiment. He was the author of a number of war-songs, including *The Muster of the North* and *The Starry Flag,* and published *Our Living Representative Men; Campaign Life of Andrew Johnson; Life and Public Services of Andrew Johnson; Fenian Heroes and Martyrs,* etc. Mr. Savage was a popular and forceful orator, and rendered great aid to the Republican party among the Irish-American citizens in General Grant's first Presidential campaign. After his inauguration President Grant sought to compliment the Irish by appointing Mr. Savage to one of the most lucrative consulates in Great Britain, but

because of Mr. Savage's connection with political movements in Ireland the United States government was given to understand that this appointment would not be agreeable. He died in Spragueville, Pa., Oct. 9, 1888.

Savage, RICHARD HENRY, military officer; born in Utica, N. Y., June 12, 1846; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1868; remained in the army for three years as second lieutenant in the corps of engineers; later studied law and practised in New York. In May, 1898, he was appointed senior major in the 2d United States Volunteer Engineers and served during the war with Spain. In November, 1898, he accompanied his command to Havana, and in that city personally raised the first American flag that had ever floated in Havana province. He is the author of *After Many Years; The Anarchist; The Flying Halcyon,* etc. He died in New York City, Oct. 11, 1903.

AFTER THE BATTLE AT SAVAGE'S STATION.
(From a contemporaneous engraving.)

Savage's Station, BATTLE AT (1862). Before dawn of June 28, 1862, McClellan's army was marching for Turkey Bend, on the James River, in its transfer from the Chickahominy to the James. General Keyes led the way through White Oak Swamp, followed by Porter's shattered corps. Then came a train of 5,000 wagons laden with ammunition, stores, and baggage, and a drove of 2,500 beef-cattle. This movement was so well masked that Lee, who suspected McClellan was about to give battle on the northern side of the Chickahominy in defence of his stores at the White House, or was preparing to retreat down the Peninsula, was completely deceived; and it was late that night when the astounding fact was announced to him that the Army of the Potomac was far on its way towards a new position on the James River; that a large portion of the stores at the White House had been removed; and that the remainder, together with the mansion (his wife's property), were in flames. He immediately put in operation measures to overtake and destroy the retreating army.

McClellan's rear-guard, composed of the divisions of Sedgwick, Richardson, Heintzelman, and Smith, of Franklin's corps, were at Savage's Station, under the general command of Sumner. There they were assailed by a Confederate force under Magruder, who first attacked Sedgwick at about 9 A.M. on June 29. He was easily repulsed. Supposing the Nationals to be advancing, he sent to Huger for aid; but finding they were only a covering party, these troops did not join him. By a misconception of an order the National line had been weakened, and at 4 P.M. Magruder fell upon the Unionists with much violence. He was again repulsed by the brigades of Burns, Brooke, and Hancock. The 69th New York and the batteries of Pettit, Osborn, and Bramhall then took an effective part in the action, and the battle raged furiously until 8 or 9 P.M., when Magruder recoiled. He had expected aid from Jackson, but was disappointed. Darkness put an end to the battle. Covered by French's brigade, the National troops fell back to White Oak Swamp, and by 5 A.M. the next day they were beyond the creek, and the bridge, over which nearly the whole Army of the Potomac passed, was destroyed.

Savannah. The chief commercial city of Georgia was founded in 1733 by General Oglethorpe. An attempt to take the city by a British fleet was repulsed by the Georgians and Carolinians in March, 1776. After the Declaration of Independence the citizens reformed the government and strengthened their military power.

A VIEW OF SAVANNAH.

Late in 1778 Sir Henry Clinton sent about 2,000 men to invade Georgia. He sailed from New York on Nov. 27th, under convoy of a portion of Commodore Hyde Parker's fleet. They arrived at the mouth of the Savannah on Dec. 23, and, after much hinderance, made their way towards Savannah, opposed by Gen. Robert Howe with about 600 Continentals and a few hundred militia. Howe was defeated, and fled, pursued by the invaders. Savannah passed into the hands of the British, with 453 prisoners, forty-eight cannon, twenty-three mortars, the fort (with its ammunition and stores), the shipping in the river, and a large quantity of provisions. The Americans lost, in killed or drowned, about 100 men; the British, about twenty-six killed and wounded. Howe, with the survivors, retreated into South Carolina.

In August, 1779, Count d'Estaing appeared off the southern coast with twenty-two ships-of-the-line. General Lincoln, in command of the Southern army, was at Charleston, when a French frigate came there to announce the arrival of the fleet and the admiral's willingness to assist the army in the reduction of Savannah, provided he should not be detained too long on that dangerous coast, for he could find neither roadstead nor offing for his great ships-of-war. His entire fleet consisted of thirty-three vessels, bearing a large number of heavy guns. On the appearance of the fleet General Prevost summoned the troops from all his outposts to the defence of Savannah, and 300 negroes from the neighboring plantations were pressed into the service in strengthening the fortifications around the town. Very soon, under the direction of Major Moncrief, thirteen redoubts and fifteen batteries, with connecting lines of intrenchments were completed, on which seventy-six cannon were mounted. Before them a strong abatis was laid.

Meanwhile Lincoln had marched from Charleston, and reached the Savannah River on Sept. 12; and on the same day French troops landed below Savannah and marched up to within 3 miles of the town. Lincoln approached, and on Sept. 23 the

PLAN OF THE SIEGE OF SAVANNAH, OCT. 9, 1779.

combined armies commenced a siege. D'Estaing had demanded a surrender of the post on the 16th, when Prevost, hourly expected reinforcements of 800 men from Beaufort, asked for a truce, which was unwisely granted. The reinforcements came, and then Prevost gave a defiant refusal. The siege, begun on Sept. 23, lasted until Oct. 8, with varying success. During the last five days a heavy cannonade and bombardment had been kept up on the British works with very little effect. D'Estaing, impatient of delay, then proposed to take the place by storm. Lincoln reluctantly agreed to the proposal, for there seemed a certainty of final victory if the siege should continue. A plan of attack was revealed to Prevost by a citizen of Charleston—a sergeant in Lincoln's army—and gave the British a great advantage. The assault was made before dawn on Oct. 9 by the combined forces, 4,500 strong, in three columns, led respectively by D'Estaing, Count Dillon, and Huger (of Charleston). They were shrouded in a dense fog and covered by the French batteries. After five hours of fierce conflict there was a truce for the purpose of burying the dead. Already 1,000 of the Americans and Frenchmen had been killed or wounded. Among the latter was D'Estaing, who was carried to his camp. Count Pulaski, at the head of his legion, was mortally wounded by a grape-shot. During the truce D'Estaing and Lincoln held a consultation. The former, having lost many men, wished to abandon the siege; the latter, confident of final success, wished to continue it. D'Estaing positively refused to remain any longer, and on the evening of Oct. 18 the allies withdrew, the French to their ships, and the Americans to Zubley's Ferry, on the Savannah. Lincoln retreated to Charleston, and the French fleet sailed for France at the beginning of November. The British lost only 120 men. Thus closed the campaign of 1779.

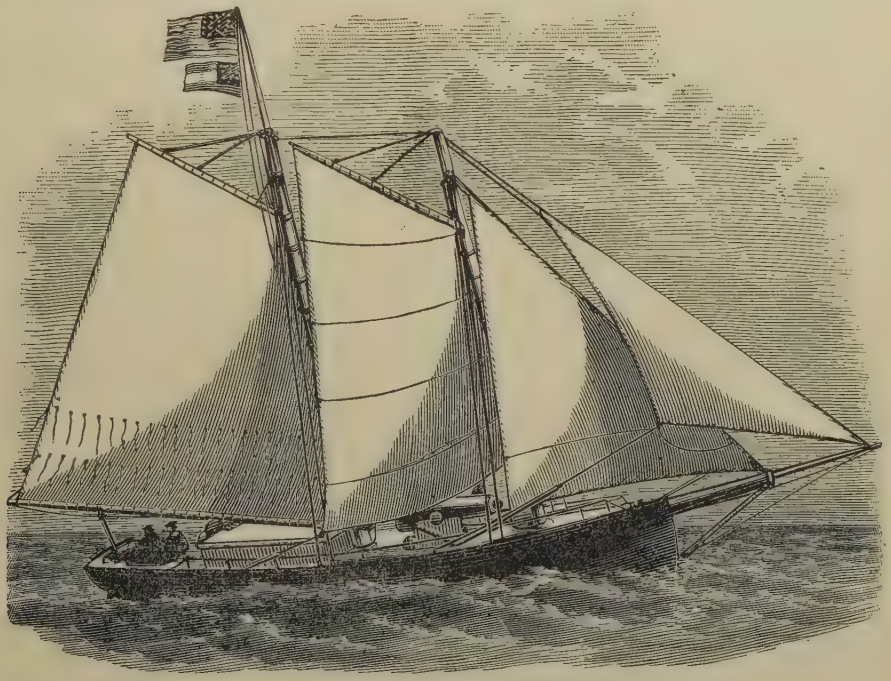
On July 11, 1782, the British troops evacuated Savannah, after an occupation of three years and a half. In consideration of the services of Gen. James Jackson, Wayne, who was in command of the Continentals in Georgia, appointed him to "receive the keys of Savannah from a committee of British officers." He did so, and on the same day the American army entered Savannah, when royal power ceased in Georgia forever. Governor Martin called a special meeting in Savannah (Aug. 1), of the Georgia legislature, at the house of General McIntosh. Very soon the free and independent State of Georgia began its career. See GEORGIA.

MOUTH OF SAVANNAH HARBOR.

Savannah, THE. The most notable of the Confederate privateers at the beginning of the Civil War was the *Savannah*, Capt. T. H. Baker, of Charleston, S. C. She was a little schooner which had done duty in Charleston harbor as a pilot-boat, only fifty-four tons' burden. She sallied out of Charleston Harbor at the close of May, 1861, captured a Maine merchant brig, and proceeded in search of other prizes. On June 3 she fell in with the National brig *Perry*, which she mistook for a merchant vessel, but, discovering her mistake, attempted to escape. After a

sharp fight the *Savannah* was captured and sent to New York. She was the first vessel captured bearing the Confederate flag. Her captain and crew were tried for piracy in New York, under the proclamation of President Lincoln of April 19, 1861. President Davis, in a letter to President Lincoln, threatened to deal with prisoners in his hands precisely as the captain and crew of the *Savannah* should be dealt with. He held Col. Michael Corcoran, of the 69th New York (Irish) Regiment, and others as hostages, to suffer death in case that penalty should be inflicted on the prisoners of the *Savannah*. The case attracted much attention at home and abroad, and in the British Parliament it was argued that, as the Confederates possessed belligerent rights the prisoners were privateers, not pirates. Judge Charles P. Daly, of New York, argued that they were on the same level in the grade of guilt with every Confederate soldier, and that if one must suffer death for *piracy*, the other must suffer death for *treason;* and the government having so far conceded belligerent rights to the Confederates as to exchange prisoners of war, it could not consistently make a distinction between prisoners taken on land and on the sea. He recommended, as a measure of expediency, that the President should treat the prisoners as "privateersmen" and prisoners of war. This recommendation was followed.

Savannah, The, the first steamship that crossed the Atlantic. She was projected by Daniel Dodd; was built in New York City by Francis Ficket for Mr. Dodd, and was of 300 tons burden. Stephen Vail, of Morristown, N. J., built her engines, and on Aug. 22, 1818, she was launched, gliding gracefully into the element which was to bear her to foreign lands, there to be crowned with the laurels of success. On May 25 this purely American-built vessel left Savannah, Ga., and glided out from its waste of marshes, under the command of Capt. Moses Rogers, with Stephen Rogers as navigator. The port of New London, Conn., had furnished



THE SAVANNAH, CONFEDERATE PRIVATEER.

these able seamen. The steamer reached Liverpool June 20, the passage having occupied twenty-six days, upon eighteen of which she had used her paddles. On the arrival of the vessel on the coast of Ireland, Lieut. John Bowie, of the King's cutter *Kite*, sent a boat-load of sailors to board the *Savannah* to assist her crew to extinguish the fires of what his Majesty's officers supposed to be a burning ship. The *Savannah*, after visiting Liverpool, continued her voyage on July 23, and reached St. Petersburg in safety. Leaving the latter port on Oct. 10, this adventurous craft completed the round voyage upon her arrival at Savannah, Nov. 30.

Savings-banks. The first regular institution of this kind was established at Hamburg in 1778. The next was at Berne, Switzerland, in 1787. The oldest savings-bank in the world, still in existence, was founded at Zurich, Switzerland, in 1803. The first savings-bank in the United States was established in Philadelphia in 1816, and in 1880 still existed as a flourishing institution. It was called the Philadelphia Savings Fund Society. The second savings-bank was established in Boston the same year, and the third in New York in 1819. These banks are regulated by State laws, and the average rate of interest paid by them is 4 per cent. For statistics of the mutual and stock savings-banks in the United States, see BANKS, SAVINGS; POSTAL SAVINGS, etc.

Sawtelle, CHARLES GREENE, military officer; born in Norridgewock, Me., May 10, 1834; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1854; promoted captain in 1861; served through the Civil War principally as quartermaster at different posts; built a pontoon bridge 900 feet long across the Red River in Texas early in 1864; brevetted brigadier-general United States army in 1865; promoted brigadier-general United States army Aug. 19, 1896; and retired Feb. 16, 1897.

Sawyer, PHILETUS, legislator; born in Whiting, Vt., Sept. 22, 1816; received a common school education in New York; removed to Wisconsin in 1847 and engaged in the lumber business; was a member of the State legislature in 1857 and 1861; mayor of Oshkosh in 1863; member of Congress in 1864–74; United States Senator in 1881–93; and a delegate to the Republican National Conventions in 1864, 1876, 1880, and 1896. He died in Oshkosh, Wis., March 29, 1900.

Sawyer, THOMAS JEFFERSON, clergyman; born in Reading, Vt., Jan. 9, 1804; graduated at Middlebury College in 1829; was ordained in the Universalist Church in 1830; pastor of a church in New York City in 1830–45 and again in 1852–61; principal and Professor of Theology in the Liberal Institute, Clinton, N. Y., in 1845–52; one of the founders of Tufts College in 1847; Professor of Theology there in 1869–92, when he was made professor emeritus. He was author of *Endless Punishment in the Very Words of Its Advocates;* regular contributor for forty years to the *Universalist Quarterly;* and editor of *The Christian Messenger* and the *Christian Ambassador.* He died in Somerville, Mass., July 23, 1899.

Saxe, JOHN GODFREY, author; born in Highgate, Vt., June 2, 1816; graduated at Middlebury College in 1839; admitted to the bar in St. Albans, and practised in Franklin county in 1843–50; was editor of the Burlington *Sentinel* in 1850–56; attorney for Vermont; Democratic candidate for governor in 1859 and again in 1860; and was the author of *Progress; The Money King; Clever Stories of Many Nations,* and several volumes of humorous poems. He died in Albany, N. Y., March 31, 1887.

Saxton, JOSEPH, inventor; born in Huntingdon county, Pa., March 22, 1799; received a common school education; was apprenticed to a watch-maker; removed to Philadelphia in 1817, and while working at his trade, invented a machine for cutting the teeth of chronometer wheels; and later made the town-clock in the belfry of Independence Hall; visited London in 1828–37; superintended the construction of the machinery and balances for the Philadelphia mint on his return to the United States, till 1843, when he was placed in charge of the construction of the standard weights and measures for the United States. Mr. Saxton received a medal from the Franklin Institute in 1834 for his reflecting pyrometer; a gold medal at the world's fair in London; and was one of the original incorporators of the National Academy of Sciences. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 26, 1873.

Saxton, RUFUS, military officer; born in Greenfield, Mass., Oct. 19, 1824; graduated at West Point in 1849; led a surveying party across the Rocky Mountains in 1853, and afterwards was employed in the coast survey. He was with Captain Lyon at St. Louis when the Civil War broke out, and was prominent in breaking up the Confederate Camp Jackson (see ST. LOUIS ARSENAL). He was with McClellan in western Virginia, and then with General Sherman in the South as quartermaster-general. He was in command at Harper's Ferry awhile, and, as brigadier-general (April 15, 1862), was made military governor of the Department of the South, serving in that capacity from 1862 to 1865. In 1865 he was brevetted major-general of volunteers; in 1882 was promoted colonel and assistant quartermaster-general United States army; and in 1888 was retired. He died Feb. 23, 1908.

Say-Brook, FORT. On his arrival at Boston in 1635, John Winthrop, son of the Governor of Massachusetts, bearing a commission from Lord Say and Seal and Lord Brook to begin a settlement on the Connecticut River and to be governor there, sent a bark of 30 tons, with twenty men, to take possession of the mouth of the river and begin a fortification there. He brought with him from England men, ordnance, ammunition, and $10,000 for the purpose. A few days after the arrival of the English at the mouth of the river, a Dutch vessel sent from Manhattan appeared, with the design of taking possession of the same spot. The English, having two pieces of cannon already mounted, would not allow the Dutch to land. The fort erected by the English was called Say-Brook, in honor of the proprietors of the land.

Saybrook, ATTACK ON. Early in April, 1814, a number of British barges, supposed to contain about 220 men, entered the Connecticut River, passed up 7 or 8 miles, and landed at a place called Pettipaug (a part of Saybrook), where the invaders destroyed about twenty-five vessels. This disaster caused the governor of Connecticut (Smith) to call out the militia for the defence of the sea-coast of the State.

Saybrook Platform. A colonial synod was held at Saybrook, Conn., Sept. 9, 1703, by legislative command, to frame an ecclesiastical constitution. That synod agreed that the confession of faith assented to by the synod in Boston in 1680 be recommended to the General Assembly, at the next session, for their public testimony to it as the faith of the churches of the Connecticut colony; and that the heads of agreement assented to by the united ministers, formerly called Presbyterian and Congregational, be observed throughout the colony. It also agreed on articles for the administration of church discipline. This was called the "Saybrook Platform." In October the legislature of Connecticut passed an act adopting the platform then constructed as the ecclesiastical constitution of the colony. This system, so closely Presbyterian, was favored by the Latitudinarians because it diminished the influence of unrestrained and bigoted church members and gave the more intelligent members greater weight in church affairs.

Sayles, JOHN, author; born in Vernon, N. Y., March 9, 1825; received a collegiate education; was admitted to the Texas bar in 1846, and began practice in Brenham. When the Civil War opened he joined the Confederate army as brigadier-general of the Texas militia, and afterwards served on the staff of Gen. John B. Magruder. His publications include *Treatise on the Civil Jurisdiction of Justices of the Peace in the State of Texas; The Probate Laws of Texas; Constitution of Texas, with Notes; The Masonic Jurisprudence of Texas; Revised Civil Statutes, and Laws passed by the Legislature of Texas, with Notes;* etc. He died in Abilene, Tex., May 22, 1897.

Sayre, LEWIS ALBERT, surgeon; born in Battle Hill (now Madison), N. J., Feb. 29, 1820; graduated at Transylvania University, Lexington, Ky., in 1839, and at the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York City, in 1842, when he became prosecutor to the Professor of Surgery in that college, which he held till 1852; was surgeon in Bellevue Hospital in 1853–73; the Charity Hospital on Blackwell's Island in 1859–73; and consulting surgeon in both hospitals from 1873 till his death. He was the first American surgeon to successfully operate for the hip disease; invented numerous surgical instruments and

appliances; introduced new methods of treatment in various diseases, and was author of *Practical Manual of the Treatment of Clubfoot; Spinal Disease and Spinal Curvature*, etc. He died in New York City, Sept. 21, 1900.

Sbaretti, DONATUS, prelate; born in Montefranco, Italy, Nov. 12, 1856; was educated at the College of St. Apollinaris, Rome, and ordained priest, April 12, 1879; was professor of speculative and moral philosophy in the College of the Propaganda, Rome, for eight years, and later served as sub-secretary of the Propaganda in affairs pertaining to the United States. He arranged the proceedings of the third council of Baltimore for presentation to the committee of cardinals; was private chamberlain to Leo XIII.; in 1893–1900 was first auditor of the apostolic legation at Washington; then made Bishop of Havana; in 1901 was made extraordinary Apostolic Delegate to the Philippine Islands, and in 1902 Apostolic Delegate to Canada.

Scab, an opprobrious epithet applied to a workman who refuses to join in a strike, to those who continue to work where a strike is on, and, frequently, to an industrial plant employing non-union labor.

Scalping, the act, peculiar to North American Indian warfare, of partly cutting, partly tearing off a piece of the skin of the head, with the hair attached; whether the victim is alive or dead at the time does not affect the operation. The Indians, with whom scalps are the trophies of victory, have always left a long lock or tuft on the scalp as a challenge. Bounties have, in American history, more than once been offered for scalps: in 1724 £100 (about $500) was offered by Massachusetts for Indian scalps; in 1754, during the French and Indian war, a bounty was offered by the French for British scalps, and by the colonies for Indian scalps; in 1755 Massachusetts offered £40 (about $200) for every scalp of a male Indian over 12 years old, and £20 (about $100) for scalps of women and children.

Scammel, ALEXANDER, military officer; born in Mendon (now Milford), Mass., March 24, 1747; graduated at Harvard College in 1769; taught school, practised surveying, and became proprietor of the town of Shapleigh, Me. In 1775 he was studying law with General Sullivan, when he left his books and joined the army at Cambridge as Sullivan's brigade-major. He was with him in the battle of Long Island, and of Trenton and Princeton; was especially distinguished at Saratoga; and from 1778 to 1781 was adjutant-general of the army. He commanded a regiment of light infantry in the siege of Yorktown, where he was surprised, and surrendered, but was so badly wounded that he died in Williamsburg, Va., Oct. 6, 1781.

Schaeffer, CHARLES WILLIAM, theologian; born in Hagerstown, Md., May 5, 1813; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1832, and at the Gettysburg Theological Seminary in 1835; ordained in the Lutheran Church in 1836; professor of ecclesiastical history at the Lutheran Theological Seminary in Philadelphia in 1864–96. His publications include *Early History of the Lutheran Church in America*, etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., March 15, 1896.

Schaff, PHILIP, clergyman; born in Coire, Switzerland, Jan. 1, 1819; educated at the universities of Tübingen, Halle, and Berlin; was ordained in the German Reformed Church; came to the United States in 1844; professor in German Reformed Seminary in Mercersburg, Pa., in 1844–63; and professor of sacred literature in Union Theological Seminary in 1870–93. He was chairman of the American committee organized in 1871 to co-operate with the English committee on Bible revision. When this great work was finished—to which he had applied himself with indefatigable zeal—he went to England to arrange for its publication. He was the author of *Sketch of the Political, Social, and Religious Character of the United States; Lectures on the Civil War and the Overthrow of Slavery in America; Historical Account of the Work of the American Committee of Revision of the English Version, etc., and co-editor of the Schaff-Herzog Encyclopædia of Religious Knowledge*, etc. He died in New York City, Oct. 20, 1893.

Scharf, JOHN THOMAS, author; born in Baltimore, Md., May 1, 1843; joined the Confederate army at the beginning of the Civil War, and served in a number of important actions. After peace was con-

cluded he engaged in mercantile business and newspaper work, and became a lawyer in 1874. His publications include *Chronicles of Baltimore; History of Maryland; History of Baltimore City and County; History of Western Maryland; History of St. Louis; History of Philadelphia; History of Westchester County, N. Y.; History of the Confederate States Navy from the Laying of the First Keel to the Sinking of the Last Vessel;* and *History of the State of Delaware.* He died in 1898.

Schechter, Solomon, theologian; born in Fokshani, Rumania, Dec. 7, 1847; was graduated as rabbi at Vienna, 1887; professor of Hebrew, University College, London, England, 1899–1901; travelled extensively to examine early works in Hebrew literature for the University of Cambridge; came to the United States and was chosen president of the Jewish Theological Seminary of America, New York City, 1902; author of numerous works and periodical contributions on ancient and modern Judaism.

Schell, Augustus, lawyer; born in Rhinebeck, N. Y., Aug. 1, 1812; graduated at Union College in 1830; admitted to the bar and gained a large practice in New York City. During the Presidential campaigns of 1860 and 1872 he was chairman of the national committee of the Democratic party, which supported John C. Breckinridge for President in the former year, and Horace Greeley in the latter; elected mayor of New York in 1878. He died in New York City, March 27, 1884.

Schem, Alexander Jacob, author; born in Wiedenbrück, Prussia, March 16, 1826; educated in Bonn and Tübingen; came to the United States in 1851; professor of ancient and modern languages at Dickinson College in 1854–60, and then devoted himself to literature; was superintendent of the New York City public schools in 1874–81. He was the author of Schem's *Statistics of the World; American Ecclesiastical Almanac; Cyclopædia of Education (with Henry Kiddle),* etc. He died in West Hoboken, N. J., May 21, 1884.

Schenck, James Findlay, naval officer; born in Franklin, O., June 11, 1807; entered the navy in 1825; served on the Pacific coast with Stockton during the Mexican War; and commanded the East India Squadron in 1860–61. He was afterwards engaged in the blockading service, and was in command of a division in Porter's fleet in the attacks on Fort Fisher. He was promoted rear-admiral in 1868, and retired in 1869. He died in Dayton, O., Dec. 21, 1882.

Schenck, Robert Cumming, diplomatist; born in Franklin, O., Oct. 4, 1809; brother of Admiral Schenck; graduated at Miami University in 1827; admitted to the bar in 1831, and settled in Dayton. In 1840 he was in the Ohio legislature; and from 1843 to 1851 in Congress, when he went as American minister to Brazil, where he took part in the negotiation of several treaties in South America. In 1861 he entered the field as brigadier-general of volunteers (May 17), and had his first encounter with the insurgents near Vienna, Va. He was engaged in the battle of Bull Run; then served in western Virginia; and, after the battle at Cross Keys, Frémont placed him in command of a division. In the battle of Groveton, or the second battle of Bull Run, he had his right arm shattered by a ball. In September, 1862, he was promoted to major-general, and a little later was in command at Baltimore. From 1863 to 1871 he was in Congress, and in the latter year was appointed minister to England, where he served till 1876, when he resigned. He died in Washington, D. C., March 23, 1890.

Schenectady, a city and county-seat of Schenectady county, N. Y.; one of the oldest cities in the State; settled by Arent Van Curler in 1661. It is the seat of Union University; has one of the largest electrical manufacturing plants in the world, noted locomotive and farm-implement works, and knitting and lace mills; assessed property valuation (1910), $46,458,460; net debt, $3,467,666. Pop. (1910), 72,826.

History.—Count Frontenac arrived in Canada as governor by reappointment in October, 1689. He brought with him troops and supplies and a plan for the invasion and occupation of New York. Invasions by the Iroquois had reduced Canada to great distress, and his arrival was timely relief. Frontenac was about seventy years of age, but possessed the vigor and buoyancy of a young man. He set to work with energy to carry the war into

the British colonies by land and sea. His first organized war-party was composed chiefly of Mohawks converted by the Jesuit missionaries, who were settled near Montreal. They were acquainted with the settlements about Albany. These Mohawks, with a number of Frenchmen, were sent to attack these settlements. They traversed the wooded wilderness southward among deep snows, and, after a march of twenty days, approached Schenectady, then a Dutch village in the Mohawk Valley, and the outpost of the settlements at Albany. There were about forty houses enclosed in a palisade, but, unaware of danger, the gates were left open, and the people were sleeping soundly, when, on the night of Feb. 8, 1690, the

A BIT OF OLD SCHENECTADY.

invaders entered the village silently, separated into several bands. The horrid signal of the war-whoop was given, and the attack began. Doors were broken open, indiscriminate slaughter ensued, and the houses were set on fire. Sixty men, women, and children were slain, twenty-seven were taken prisoners, and the remainder fled, half-naked, through a driving snow-storm, to Albany, 16 miles distant. The cold was so intense that many lost their limbs by frost. This raid created intense alarm. The sense of horror which this outrage produced in the neighboring town of Albany was strongly expressed a few days later by Major Peter Schuyler: "The Cruelties committed at said Place no Penn can write nor Tongue expresse: the women bigg with Childe rip'd up and the Children alive throwne into the flames, and there heads dash'd in pieces against the Doors and windows." Two other Indian parties attacked and destroyed the village of Salmon Falls, in New Hampshire, and the fort and village at Casco (Portland) on the Maine coast. From various points on the long, exposed frontier news of similar disasters was sent to the government at Boston.

The settlement suffered some during the French and Indian War, but it was rather too near the strong post of Albany to in-

vite frequent visits from the enemy. It is said that Schenectady was the principal seat of the Mohawks before the confederacy of the five Iroquois nations was formed.

Scherzer, KARL VON, explorer; born in Vienna, Austria, May 1, 1821; participated in the discussion of social reforms during the revolution; exiled to Italy in 1850; came to the United States in 1852, and explored large parts of North America; sailed around the world in the frigate *Novara* in 1857–59; and became Austrian consul-general in Genoa in 1884. He was the author of *Travels in North America; Costa Rica; The Novara Expedition,* etc. He died in Göritz, Austria, Feb. 20, 1903.

Schiff, JACOB HENRY, philanthropist; born in Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany, in 1847; removed to New York City and entered on a banking career in 1865; and while following that business subsequently became actively interested in a large number of financial institutions. Mr. Schiff represents the highest type of the progressive Jewish citizen of the United States; is a preacher and exemplar of sturdy Americanism; and has endeared himself not only to the people of his own race but to the community at large by a generous participation in public affairs and by princely benefactions in educational channels. He founded the Jewish Theological Seminary of America at New York, the Semitic Museum at Harvard University, and the Nurses' Settlement at New York; gave $500,000 and his personal services to promote the diversion of immigration of Jews into the interior of the country; is vice-president and a trustee of the Baron de Hirsch Fund, a founder of Barnard College, Columbia University, trustee of the Metropolitan Museum of Art and the American Museum of Natural History, president of the Montefiore Home for Chronic Invalids, and a former vice-president of the New York Chamber of Commerce.

The American Jew.—In an address before the Menorah Society of Columbia University, April 3, 1911, Mr. Schiff drew the following picture of the future of the American Jew:

"When I was of your age the percentage of our people in this community was comparatively small. Now they have grown into a mighty host, and the Jew makes himself felt in every walk of life. With our privileges our responsibilities have grown, and if we wish to undisturbedly enjoy the former, it will be well that we thoroughly understand and live up to the latter. While we should ever be firm in our insistence that there can only be one class of Americans, and that discrimination in any respect must not follow attachment to a religious sect, we want to be careful not to make claims and demands which, of necessity, must force us into a separate class and raise the very barriers which it is our desire to see eliminated.

"The future position of the American Jew, particularly in this city, will be determined, more than by anything else, by the standing the Jewish university man attains in city and nation. It is he who acts as spokesman in the courts—who primarily becomes the representative in the State and national Legislature, the halls of science, and in a variety of other public bodies. He not only represents public opinion, but, to no small extent, he often helps to form it. How very necessary is it, therefore, that the Jewish student become fully cognizant of the duty which is upon him, to so qualify himself that when the opportunity for public service comes to him it will be rendered in a manner that shall cast credit upon his people, upon whom any of his shortcomings are likewise surely to be visited. Long ago already our sages enjoined upon us that the weal of the commonwealth in which we live should ever be our first concern, and in these times, when it is so persistently preached, that we are more than a people, that we are still a nation, the warning cannot be often enough repeated and emphasized that, proud as we have every right to be of our past, and imbued as we should be with the divine purpose for which the Jew and the faith of which he is the bearer have been kept alive, we who have been planted among this great nation belong to it, and to no other; that politically we neither seek nor have any different expectation or hope, now or in the future. True, it is inspiring for a people to have an ideal of their own in which they can unite and

seek to rejuvenate themselves. Because of this, it is praiseworthy to promote educational efforts of every kind in the land where the cradle of the Jew has stood, and where, in these times, it has become particularly desirable to raise his cultural level; this we should encourage in every manner, but beyond this, warmly attached as we may be to our people and to our faith, we must not go, if we wish to be justified in claiming and exercising the high privileges American citizenship bestows upon its bearer."

Schimmelin, ALEXANDER OLIVER, historian; born in Flanders about 1645; went to the West Indies in 1666; was a buccaneer in 1669–74; returned to Europe. He was the author of *History of the Adventures of the Freebooters, which are Remarkable in the Indies.* He died in France in 1707.

Schlaginweit, ROBERT, traveller; born in Munich, Bavaria, Oct. 27, 1833; a brother of HERMANN and ADOLF, noted for their geological exploration of India in 1854–57, in which he participated. He travelled extensively in North America; lectured in English and German in the large cities of the United States; and published *The Pacific Railroad in North America; California;* and *The Mormons.* He died in Giessen, Hesse-Darmstadt, June 6, 1885.

Schlatter, MICHAEL, clergyman; born in St. Gall, Switzerland, July 14, 1716; educated at the University of Helmstedt; ordained in the German Reformed Church; settled in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1746, and became pastor of the united churches of Philadelphia and Germantown in 1747. He returned to Europe in 1751, and appealed for help in Holland and England for free schools among the Germans in America. This appeal resulted in a fund of over £20,000. Schlatter retired from the active pastorate in 1755, and devoted himself to founding schools. He served in the Royal American army as chaplain in 1757–59. When the Revolutionary War began he sympathized with the patriots; was imprisoned by the British in September, 1777, and had his house sacked because he refused to obey their orders. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., in November, 1790.

Schley, WINFIELD SCOTT, naval officer; born in Frederick county, Md., Oct. 9, 1839; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1860; was with the West Gulf Blockading Squadron in 1861; took part in the engagements which led to the surrender of Port Hudson, La., in 1863; was promoted lieutenant-commander in 1866, and commander in 1874. He was placed in command of the arctic relief expedition in 1884, and rescued Lieutenant Greely and six survivors at Cape Sabine. He was promoted captain in 1888, and in 1891, when a number of American sailors were stoned by a mob in Valparaiso, Chile, he went to that port in command of the *Baltimore* and settled the trouble. In August, 1891, the *Baltimore,* still under his command, was detailed to convey the remains of JOHN

WINFIELD SCOTT SCHLEY.

ERICSSON (*q. v.*) to Sweden. He was promoted commodore in February, 1898, and, when the American-Spanish War began, was given command of the newly organized Flying Squadron in the service. This squadron was united with the North Atlantic Squadron under Rear-Admiral Sampson on June 29. During the battle which followed the attempt of Admiral Cervera to escape, Schley was in immediate command of the American fleet, as Sampson, the commander-in-chief, was absent on a run to Siboney. He was promoted read-admiral in August, 1898; and was retired Oct. 9, 1901. On July 22, 1901, he applied for a court of inquiry into his conduct during the Santiago battle because of criticisms as to the credit for

the victory. The majority of the court found adversely to him, but Admiral Dewey gave him full credit for the victory. He published *The Rescue of Greely; The Fight off Santiago* and *Forty-five Years under the Flag.* He dropped dead in New York City, Oct. 2, 1911. See SANTIAGO, NAVAL BATTLE OF.

The Court of Inquiry.—The controversy between the friends of Rear-Admirals Sampson and Schley, noted in the sketch of the former, led to criticisms on the conduct of the latter during the Santiago fight which were considered by his friends exceedingly unjust. Personally he took no notice of the reflections upon his professional conduct, declaring that the history had been made, and the proofs of it were in the public documents, until July 22, 1910, when he requested a court of inquiry into his conduct.

His request was at once granted, and a court was appointed, composed of Admiral Dewey, Rear-Admirals Benham and Ramsay. The court began its inquiry in Washington on Sept. 12, and on Dec. 13, 1901, reported its proceedings and the testimony taken, with a full and detailed statement of all the pertinent facts which it deemed to be established, together with its opinion and recommendation in the premises. The court found that Commodore Schley failed to proceed to Santiago with due despatch, that the squadron should not have been delayed by the *Eagle*, that he should not have turned westward, that he should have promptly obeyed the Navy Department's order of May 25th, that he did not do his utmost to capture the *Colon*, that the turn of the *Brooklyn* caused the *Texas* to stop, that he did injustice to Lt.-Com. Hodgson, that his conduct in the Santiago campaign was characterized by vacillation, dilatoriness, and lack of enterprise, and that his coal reports were inaccurate and misleading. The court recommended that no further proceedings be had in view of the length of time which had elapsed.

Schlosser, FORT. A defensive work near Niagara Falls, which was burned by the British, December, 1813, in retaliation for the burning of Newark, Ontario.

Schmauk, THEODORE EMMANUEL, editor; born in Lancaster, Pa., in 1860; ordained into the Evangelical Lutheran ministry in 1883; became editor-in-chief of *The Lutheran Church Review* in 1895; president General Council, Evangelical Lutheran Church in North America, from 1903. He is the author of *History of Old Salem and Lebanon; The Nineteenth Century: Its History, Men, and Movements; The Early Churches of the Lebanon Valley; History of the Lutheran Church in Pennsylvania*, etc.

REMAINS AT FORT SCHLOSSER.

Schmucker, SAMUEL MOSHEIM, author; born in New Market, Va., Jan. 12, 1823; graduated at Washington College, Pa., in 1840; became a Lutheran clergyman and held pastorates till 1848; was admitted to the bar in 1850, but applied himself to literary work. He was author of *Election of Judges by the People; Constitutionality of the Maine Liquor Law; Life of John C. Frémont; Life of Alexander Hamilton; History of the Mormons; Life of Thomas Jefferson; Arctic Explorations and Discoveries; Life of Dr. Elisha Kent Kane; Life of Daniel Webster; Life of Henry Clay; Life of Washington; Blue Laws of Connecticut; A History of the Civil War*, etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 12, 1863.

Schmucker, SAMUEL SIMON, theologian; born in Hagerstown, Md., Feb. 28, 1799; graduated at the Princeton Theological Seminary in 1820; chairman of the faculty of the Theological Seminary at Gettysburg, Pa., in 1826–64; was largely instrumental in founding the ecclesiastical

connection between the Lutheran churches in the United States and Europe. His publications include *Fraternal Appeal to the American Churches on Christian Union; The American Lutheran Church, Historically, Doctrinally, and Practically Delineated; American Lutheranism Vindicated,* etc. He died in Gettysburg, Pa., July 26, 1873.

Schofield, JOHN MCALLISTER, military officer; born in Chautauqua county, N. Y., Sept. 29, 1831; graduated at West Point in 1853, where he was instructor in natural philosophy for five years. Under leave of absence he was filling a like post in the Washington University, Mo., when the Civil War broke out. He was chief of Lyon's staff at Wilson's Creek, and in November, 1861, was made brigadier-general of volunteers, commanding the Missouri militia. In April, 1862, he commanded the District of Missouri, and in October the Army of the Frontier, with which he drove the organized Confederate forces into Arkansas. In November, 1862, he was made major-general of volunteers. In the Atlanta campaign, in 1864, he was conspicuous; also in the campaign against Hood in Tennessee until the battle of Nashville, when he was transferred to North Carolina, taking possession of Wilmington, and was active until the surrender of Johnston. He was brevetted major-general, United States army, in March, 1865; was Secretary of War *ad interim* on the resignation of General Grant in 1868. He was promoted lieutenant-general in February, 1895, and retired in September following. He published *Forty-six Years in the Army.* He died in St. Augustine, Florida, March 4, 1906.

Schoolcraft, HENRY ROWE, ethnologist; born in Watervliet, N. Y., March 28, 1793. His ancestor who first settled in America was a school-teacher named Calcraft, and he was popularly named Schoolcraft. Henry studied chemistry and mineralogy in Union College in 1807–8. In 1817–18 he took a scientific tour in the West, and made a fine mineralogical and geological collection, publishing, in 1819, *A View of the Lead Mines of Missouri,* which was enlarged and published (1853) under the title of *Scenes and Adventures in the Semi-Alpine Regions of the Ozark Mountains of Missouri and Arkansas.* In 1820 he was geologist of an exploring expedition under General Cass to the Lake Superior copper region. He was also on a commission to treat with the Indians at Chicago. In 1823 he was made Indian agent at the Falls of St. Mary, and afterwards at Mackinaw, where he married a granddaughter of an Indian chief. He founded the Historical Society of Michigan in 1828; the Algic Society, at Detroit, in 1831, before which he delivered two lectures on the grammatical construction of the Indian languages. These, translated into French by Duponceau and presented to the French Institute, procured for Schoolcraft a gold medal from that institution. He published several works on Indian literature, as well as fiction, and in 1832 led a second government expedition to discover the real chief source of the Mississippi River, which was found to be Lake Itasca. In a treaty with the Indians on the Upper Lakes in 1836 he procured the cession of 16,000,000 acres of land to the United States, and he was appointed chief disbursing agent for the Northern Department. After visiting Europe he was employed by the State of New York in making a census and collecting statistics of the SIX NATIONS (*q. v.*), and in 1847 he was employed by authority of Congress in the preparation of a work entitled *Historical and Statistical Information Respecting the History, Condition, and Prospects of the Indian Tribes of the United States.* He wrote *Personal Memoirs of a Residence of Thirty Years with the Indian Tribes on the American Frontiers* (1863), and several other works on the red race. *The Indian Fairy Book,* compiled from his manuscripts, was published in 1868. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 10, 1864.

Schools. See EDUCATION; TECHNOLOGY; MANUAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING; COLLEGES, ETC.

Schooner Pearl, THE. In 1848 Captain Drayton and his mate Sayles, attempted to carry away to freedom, from the vicinity of Washington, D. C., seventy-seven fugitive slaves concealed in this schooner; as the schooner neared the mouth of the Potomac River, she was overtaken and obliged to return. These fugitive slaves, men, women, and children, were immediately sold to the cotton plant-

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL JOHN McA. SCHOFIELD

ers of the Gulf States; while Drayton and Sayles, with difficulty saved from death by mob-violence, were brought to trial in Washington. The aggregate bail required amounted to $228,000. They were convicted and in prison until 1852, when, through the influence and efforts of Charles Sumner, President Fillmore granted them an unconditional pardon; but, notwithstanding this, they were immediately hurried out of the city and sent to the North to save them from violence and rearrest.

Schoonmaker, MARTINUS, clergyman; born in Rochester, N. Y., in 1737; licensed to preach in 1765; held several pastorates till 1784, when he took charge of the six congregations in Kings county; was among the last ministers who preached in Dutch. During the Revolutionary War he was an active and influential Whig. He died in Flatbush, N. Y., in 1824.

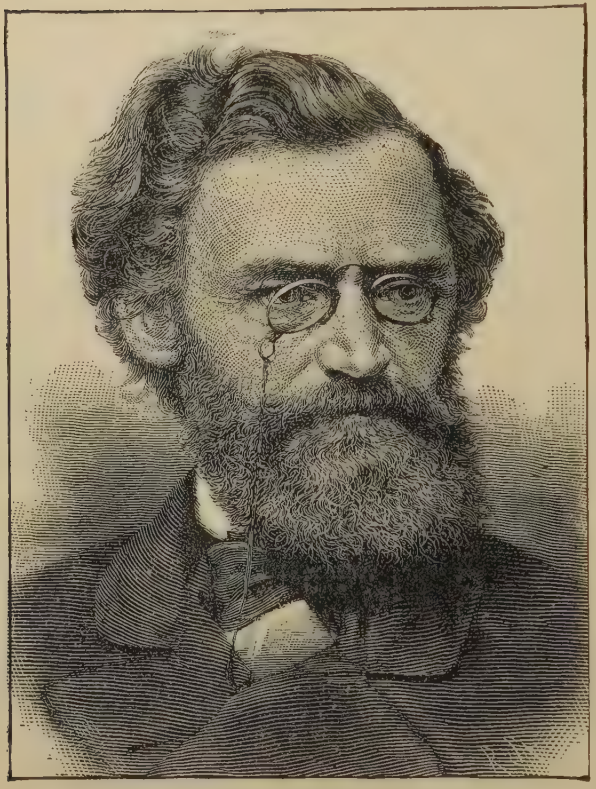
Schott, CHARLES ANTHONY, civil engineer; born in Mannheim, Germany, Aug. 7, 1826; graduated at the Polytechnic School in Carlsruhe in 1847; came to the United States in 1848, and secured a place on the coast survey; was made assistant in 1856; elected a member of the National Academy of Science in 1872. His publications include *Magnetical Observations in the Arctic Seas; Tables and Results of the Precipitation in Rain and Snow in the United States, and at Some Stations in Adjacent Parts of North America, and in Central and South America; Tables, Distribution, and Variations of the Atmospheric Temperature in the United States and Some Adjacent Parts of America;* etc. He died in Washington, D.C., July 31, 1901.

Schouler, JAMES, historian; born in Arlington, Mass., March 20, 1839; graduated at Harvard College in 1859, and was admitted to the bar in 1862; was professor in the law department of the Boston University in 1882–1902; a lecturer in Johns Hopkins University in 1891–1908; president American Historical Association in 1897. He is the author of *Life of Thomas Jefferson; Historical Briefs; History of the United States* (6 volumes); *Eighty Years of Union; Americans of 1776,* etc.

Schouler, WILLIAM, journalist; born in Kilbarchan, Scotland, Dec. 31, 1814; was brought to the United States in 1815; received a common-school education; engaged in journalism and was connected with various papers; member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives for four terms and of the Senate one term; adjutant-general of the State in 1860–66. He published a *History of Massachusetts in the Civil War* (2 volumes). He died in West Roxbury, Mass., Oct. 24, 1872.

Schurman, JACOB GOULD, educator; born in Freetown, Prince Edward Island, May 22, 1854; graduated at the University of London in 1877, and took a post-graduate course at the University of Edinburgh; was Professor of Philosophy at Cornell University in 1886–92; and was then elected its president. In January, 1899, President McKinley appointed him chairman of the United States Philippine commission, and he was granted a leave of absence from Cornell. He is the author of *A Generation of Cornell; Philippine Affairs; A Retrospect and Outlook,* etc. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Schurz, CARL, military officer; born near Cologne, Germany, March 2, 1829; studied at the Gymnasium at Cologne and at the University of Bonn; with other students engaged in the revolutionary movements in 1848; joined Gottfried Kinkel in publishing a liberal newspaper; and, after the failure of an attempt at insurrection at Bonn (1849) both were compelled to fly. Schurz made his way to Switzerland. On the night of Nov. 6, 1850, he rescued Kinkel from the fortress of Spandau, escaped to the sea, and took passage in a schooner for Leith. Thence Schurz went to Paris; thence to London, in 1851, where he was a teacher until the summer of 1852, when he came to the United States, landing at Philadelphia. There he remained three years, and then settled at Madison, Wis. In the Presidential campaign of 1856 he became a noted German orator, and in 1858 began to make public speeches in English. He soon afterwards became a lawyer at Milwaukee, and, in the winter of 1859–60 was recognized as a popular lecturer. He took a leading part in the Republican National Convention in 1860, when Abraham Lincoln was nominated for President, and made effective speeches during the campaign. After his inauguration Mr. Lincoln appointed him minister to Spain, but he returned to the United States in December, resigned the office of



CARL SCHURZ.

minister, became a brigadier-general of volunteers in April, 1862, and major-general in March, 1863. He was in command of a division in the battle of Groveton, or second battle of Bull Run, and at Chancellorsville, and was temporarily in command of the 11th Corps at the battle of Gettysburg, afterwards taking part in the battle of Chattanooga. After the war General Schurz resumed the practice of law in Washington, and was for some time the Washington correspondent of the New York *Tribune*. In 1866 he was sent to the South as a commissioner to examine and report on the condition of the Southern States, especially upon the condition of the freedmen's bureau. In the same year he founded the Detroit *Post*, and in 1867 he became editor of a German paper published in St. Louis. He labored earnestly for the election of General Grant to the Presidency; in January, 1869, he was chosen United States Senator from Missouri; opposed some of the leading measures of President Grant's administration; was one of the organizers of the Liberal Republican party in 1872. He was Secretary of the Interior in 1877–81; editor of the New York *Evening Post* in 1881–84; and president of the National Civil Service Reform League in 1892–1901. He died in New York City, May 14, 1906.

Schussele, CHRISTIAN, artist; born in Guebvillers, Alsace, April 16, 1824; came to the United States about 1848; was professor of drawing and painting in the Pennsylvania Academy in 1868–79. His principal works include *Franklin before the Lords in Council; Men of Progress, Zeisberger Preaching to the Indians; Washington at Valley Forge;* and *McClellan at Antietam.* He died in Merchantville, N. J., Aug. 20, 1879.

Schuyler, EUGENE, diplomatist; born in Ithaca, N. Y., Feb. 26, 1840; graduated at Yale College in 1859, and at the Columbia Law School in 1863; engaged in practice in 1863–66; was United States consul at Moscow in 1866–69; at Reval in 1869–70; secretary of the United States legation at St. Petersburg in 1870–76; at Constantinople in 1876–78; *chargé d'affaires* at Bucharest in 1880–82; minister to Greece, Servia, and Rumania in 1882–84; and consul-general at Cairo from 1889 till his death. He contributed to magazines and wrote *American Diplomacy.* He died in Cairo, Egypt, July 18, 1890.

Schuyler, GEORGE LEE, sportsman; born in Rhinebeck, N. Y., June 9, 1811; became deeply interested in yachting. In 1882 the New York Yacht Club returned the *America's* cup to him, as its only surviving donor; but he immediately donated it

anew to the club as a challenge-cup. In 1887 he was referee in the race between the *Volunteer* and *Thistle*. He published *Correspondence and Remarks upon Bancroft's History of the Northern Campaign in 1777*; and *The Character of Major-General Philip Schuyler*. He died on the yacht *Electra* off New London, Conn., July 31, 1890.

Schuyler, George Washington, financier; born in Stillwater, N. Y., Feb. 2, 1810; graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1837; removed to Utica; treasurer of New York State in 1863–65; superintendent of the New York banking department in 1866–70; auditor of the canal department in 1876–80; was the first to advocate the abolition of tolls on canals, thus making them free waterways. He was the author of *Colonial New York; Philip Schuyler and His Family* (2 volumes). He died in Utica, N. Y., Feb. 1, 1888.

Schuyler, Peter, military officer; born in New Jersey in 1710. He early became interested in military affairs; was commissioned colonel in 1746 and commanded a regiment which became known as the "Jersey Blues"; was assigned to Fort Clinton at Saratoga and left it only when compelled to do so by lack of provisions. In 1754 when the war with France began a second time he was stationed at Oswego with his regiment, one-half of which, including himself, was later captured. Subsequently he served with his regiment in the conquest of Canada. He died in Newark, N. J., March 7, 1762.

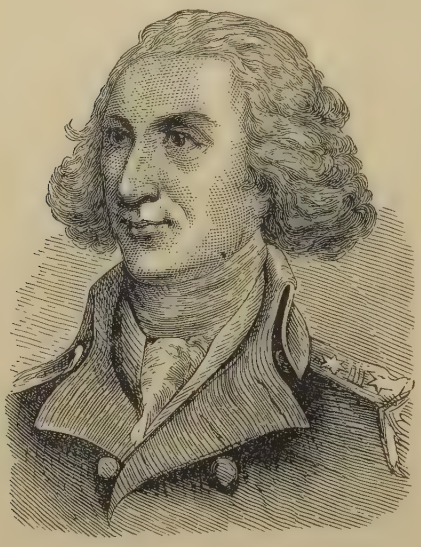
Schuyler, Peter, military officer; born in Albany, N. Y., Sept. 17, 1657; second son of Philip Pietersen Van Schuyler, the first of the name in America; entered public life when quite young, and enjoyed the confidence of his fellow-citizens. When, in 1686, Albany was incorporated a city, young Schuyler and Robert Livingston went to New York for the charter, and Schuyler was appointed the first mayor under it, which office he held eight years. In 1688 he was appointed major of the militia, and towards the close of the following year he was put in command of the fort at Albany. It was at about that time that Milborne attempted to take possession of the fort. He was successfully resisted by Schuyler and some Mohawk Indians. In 1691 Schuyler led an expedition that penetrated to La Prairie, near Montreal. After several skirmishes, in which he lost nineteen white men and Indians, and killed about 200 Frenchmen and Indians, he returned to Albany. He was a member of the New York Assembly from 1701 until 1713. In 1710 he went to England with five chiefs of the Five Nations, at his own expense, for the purpose of impressing them with the greatness of the English nation, and so detaching them from the French; and to arouse the government to the necessity of assisting the Americans in expelling the French from Canada, then becoming more hostile and powerful every day. After the accession of George I. (1714) he became a member of the King's council in New York. At one time he was its president, and in 1719 was acting governor. He also was

PETER SCHUYLER.

commissioner of Indian affairs, and acquired almost unbounded influence over the Five Nations. He died in Albany, N. Y., Feb. 19, 1724.

Schuyler, Philip (John), military officer; born in Albany, N. Y., Nov. 22, 1733; inherited the whole of his father's estate, which he divided with his brothers

and sisters, and also inherited from Col. Philip Schuyler the Saratoga estate, which he afterwards occupied. He was a captain of provincial troops at Fort Edward and Lake George in 1755, became a commissary in the army the same year, and held the office until 1763. In 1756 Col. John Bradstreet was sent by Shirley to provision the garrison at Oswego. With 200 provincial troops and forty companies of boatmen, he crossed the country from Albany, by way of the Mohawk River, Wood Creek, Oneida Lake, and the Oswego River, and placed in the fort provision for 5,000 troops for six months. He was accompanied by Schuyler, as chief commissary. His descent of the Oswego River had been observed by the French scouts, and when he had ascended that stream about 9 miles he was attacked by a strong party of French, Canadians, and Indians. These were driven from an island in the river, and there Bradstreet made a defensive stand. One of the Canadians, too severely wounded to fly with his companions, remained, and a boatman was about to despatch him, when Schuyler saved his life. When, soon afterwards, Bradstreet abandoned the island, only one bateau was left. It was scarcely large enough to carry the colonel and his little band of followers. The wounded Canadian begged to be taken in, but was refused. "Then throw me into the river," he cried, "and not leave me here to perish with hunger and thirst." The heart of Schuyler was touched by the poor fellow's appeals, and, handing his weapons and coat to a companion-in-arms, he bore the wounded man to the water, swam with him across the deep channel, and placed him in the hands of a surgeon. The soldier survived; and nineteen years afterwards, when Schuyler, at the head of the Northern Army of the Revolution, sent a proclamation in the French language into Canada, that soldier, living near Chambly, enlisted under the banner of Ethan Allen, that he might see and thank the preserver of his life. He went to Schuyler's tent, on the Isle aux Noix, and kissed the general's hand in token of his gratitude.



PHILIP (JOHN) SCHUYLER.

An influential member of the New York Assembly, Schuyler was chiefly instrumental in stimulating early resistance to British encroachments on the rights of the colonists. In the Continental Congress, in 1775, he, with Washington, drew up the regulations for the army, and he was appointed one of the first major-generals. Assigned to the command of the Northern Army, he was charged with planning and executing an invasion of Canada. An attack of gout prevented his conducting the campaign in person in the field, and after going with the army to the foot of Lake Champlain, he relinquished the command to GEN. RICHARD MONTGOMERY (*q. v.*), his lieutenant, and returned to Albany. He, however, addressed the inhabitants of Canada in a circular letter, written in French, informing them that "the only views of Congress were to restore to them their rights, which every subject of the British Empire, of whatever religious sentiments he may be, is entitled to; and that, in the execution of these trusts, he had received the most positive orders to cherish every Canadian and every friend to the cause of liberty, and sacredly to guard their property." The wise purposes of this circular were frustrated by the bigotry of General Wooster, who saw no good in Roman Catholics, and the dishonesty of Colonel Arnold, who cheated them.

On his recovery from his attack of gout he entered with zeal upon his various duties as commander-in-chief of his department and principal Indian commissioner. Annoyed by the insubordination and loose discipline of some of his troops —with interference with his authority and wicked slanders of men intriguing to put General Gates in his place—he offered his resignation; but the Congress, knowing his great worth, begged him to remain. General Gates, piqued by the omission of the Continental Congress to appoint him one of the major-generals in the army (June, 1775), but only adjutant-general, with rank of brigadier-general, indulged in unworthy intrigues for promotion. He was a favorite with some of the leading men in Congress from New England, and very soon a Gates faction appeared in that body. When disaster overwhelmed the American army in Canada he was sent thither, by order of Congress, to take command of it, and, because his power was independent while the troops were in Canada, he assumed that his command would

THE SCHUYLER ARMS.

be independent in any part of the Northern Department. When the troops were out of Canada he assumed that independence. Schuyler questioned his powers, and Congress was compelled to tell Gates that he was subordinate to Schuyler. Late in 1776 Gates repaired to the Congress at Baltimore and renewed his intrigues so successfully that, on account of false charges against Schuyler, he was appointed his successor in the command of the Northern Department in the spring of 1777. The report of a committee of inquiry caused Schuyler's reinstatement a few weeks afterwards. Gates was angry, and wrote impertinent letters to his superiors. He refused to serve under Schuyler, who had always treated him with the most generous courtesy, but hastened to the Congress, then in Philadelphia, and, by the misrepresentation of one of his faction, was admitted to the floor of that body, where he so conducted himself as to receive rebuke. A conspiracy for the removal of Schuyler and the appointment of Gates in his place soon ripened into action. The evacuation of Ticonderoga early in July (1777) was charged to Schuyler's inefficiency, and he was even charged, indirectly, with treason. So great became the clamor against him, especially from the constituents of Gates's friends in Congress from New England, that early in August those friends procured Schuyler's removal and the appointment of Gates to his place. The patriotic Schuyler, unmoved in his sense of duty by this rank injustice, received Gates kindly and offered his services to the new commander, who treated the general with the greatest coolness. The victories over Burgoyne soon ensued, the whole preparation for which had been made by Schuyler. Left thus without command, Schuyler's vigilance was of the utmost importance to the cause, and he was called "the eye of the Northern Department." His influence in keeping the Indians neutral was of incalculable importance to the American cause at that time. Schuyler resigned his commission in April, 1779. As a member of Congress (1778–81) he was very efficient in military affairs, and was appointed to confer with Washington concerning the campaign of 1780, especially in the Southern Department. In the summer of 1781 Schuyler, withdrawn from military service, was at his home, just on the southern verge of the city of Albany. Plans had been matured for seizing him, Govern-

or Clinton, and other leading patriots of the State. In August an attempt was made to abduct Schuyler by Walter Meyer,

SCHUYLER'S MANSION IN ALBANY.

a Tory, who had eaten bread at the general's table. Meyer, at the head of a band of Tories, Canadians, and Indians, repaired to the neighborhood of Albany, where he seized a Dutch laborer and learned from him the precise condition of affairs at Schuyler's house. He was allowed to depart after taking an oath of secrecy, but, with a mental reservation, he warned the general, and Schuyler and his family were on the alert. Just at twilight of a sultry evening, a servant told the general that a stranger at the back gate desired to speak to him. He comprehended the errand. The doors of the house were immediately closed and barred, the family went to the second story, and the general hastened to his room

SCHUYLER'S MANSION AT SARATOGA.

for his fire-arms. From the window he perceived that the house was surrounded by armed men. They were Meyer and his gang. To arouse his guard (three of whom were asleep on the grass), and, perchance, to alarm the town, he fired a pistol from his window. At the same moment Indians burst open the doors below. All these movements occurred in the space of a few minutes. Mrs. Schuyler perceived that in the confusion in going up-stairs she had left her infant (afterwards Mrs. C. V. R. Cochrane, of Oswego, N. Y., where she died in August, 1857) in the cradle below. She was about to rush to the rescue of her child, when the general restrained her. Her life was of more value than that of the infant. Her little daughter Margaret (afterwards the wife of Gen. Stephen Van

CATHARINE V. R. COCHRANE.

Rensselaer, the "patroon") ran down the stairs, snatched the baby from the cradle, and bore it up in safety. As she was ascending an Indian threw a tomahawk at her. It went near the baby's head, through her dress, and stuck in the stair-railing. At the same moment one of the miscreants, supposing her to be a servant, called out, "Wench! wench! where is your master?" With quick presence of mind, she replied, "Gone to alarm the town." The Tories were then in the dining-room, engaged in plunder. The general threw up his window and called out, loudly, as to a multitude, "Come on, my brave fellows; surround the house and secure the villains

who are plundering." The marauders retreated in haste, carrying away with them a quantity of silver-plate. Three of the guards fought lustily, but were overpowered and carried away prisoners. When they were exchanged the generous and grateful Schuyler gave each of them a farm in Saratoga county.

General Schuyler was one of the New York State Senators; one of the principal contributors to the code of laws adopted by that State; and United States Senator from 1789 to 1791, and again in 1797. He was an earnest advocate of internal improvements for the development of the resources of the country, and he is justly called the "father of the canal system of the United States." He was a man of large wealth. He owned a fine mansion in the then southern suburbs of Albany, and a plain one on his large estate at Saratoga. The latter, with its mills and other property, valued at $50,000, was destroyed by the British at the time of Burgoyne's invasion. He died in Albany, N. Y., Nov. 18, 1804.

Schuyler, FORT. On the site of the village of Rome, Oneida co., N. Y., General Stanwix built a fort which received his name. After the Revolutionary War began it was named Fort Schuyler. In the Revolution it was on the western borders of civilization. There was a small garrison there in the summer of 1777, commanded by Col. Peter Ganse-voort. It stood as a sort of barrier against hostile tribes of the Six Nations. The little garrison had been reinforced by the regiment of Col. Marinus Willett, and was well provisioned. Burgoyne had sent Colonel St. Leger with Canadians, Tories, and Indians, by way of Lake Ontario, to penetrate the Mohawk Valley and made his way to Albany, there to meet the general. St. Leger appeared before Fort Schuyler on Aug. 3. The Tories in his train were commanded by Colonels Johnson, Claus, and Butler, and the Indians by Brant. On receiving news that General Herkimer was coming to the aid of the garrison with the Tryon county militia a larger portion within the fort made a sortie. They fell upon the camp of Johnson's "Greens" so suddenly and furiously that they were dispersed in great confusion, Sir John not having time to put on his coat. Papers, clothing, stores, and other spoils of his camp sufficient to fill twenty wagons fell into the hands of the Americans. A part of the "Greens" who had gone to oppose the advance of Herkimer, approaching at

MAP OF FORT SCHUYLER AND VICINITY.

that moment, St. Leger continued the siege. Colonel Willett stealthily left the fort at night with a message to Schuyler, then near the mouth of the Mohawk, asking for relief. Schuyler called for a volunteer leader. General Arnold responded, and beat up for recruits. The next day 800 strong men were following

Arnold up the Mohawk Valley. At Fort Dayton he pardoned a young Tory prisoner condemned to death, on condition that he should go into the camp of St. Leger's savages with a friendly Oneida Indian, represent the approaching Americans as exceedingly numerous, and so frighten away the Indians. It was done. The Tory had several shots fired through his clothing. Almost breathless, he and the Oneida entered the camp and told of a terrible fight they had just had with the Americans, who were as numerous as the leaves on the trees. The alarmed Indians immediately fled as fast as their legs could carry them towards the western wilds, followed by the Canadians and Tories pell-mell in a race towards Oswego. So ended the siege, and so did Burgoyne receive a paralyzing blow.

While the British retained possession of the Western frontier posts in 1784 it was difficult to fix by treaty the Indian boundaries and open the Western lands to settlers. But a treaty made at Fort Schuyler by commissioners of the United States and the chiefs and warriors of the Six Nations gave some facilities in that direction. By this treaty the Mohawks, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas, who had adhered to the British during the war, consented to a peace and a release of prisoners. At the same time they ceded all their territory west of Pennsylvania.

Schwab, CHARLES M., manufacturer; born in Williamsburg, Pa., April 18, 1862; graduated at St. Francis College, Loretto, Pa., in 1880; secured employment as stake-driver in the engineering corps of the Edgar Thompson Steel Works; was made superintendent of that plant in 1881, and served in that capacity till 1887, when he was appointed superintendent of the Homestead Steel Works. In 1897 he became president of the Carnegie Steel Company, Limited, and in 1901–03 was president of the United States Steel Corporation, which purchased the Carnegie Steel Company, the Federal Steel Company, and other large steel interests. He founded an industrial school in Homestead, Pa.; built a Catholic church in Loretto, Pa., at a cost of $150,000, and a public-school at Weatherly, Pa.; and is noted otherwise as a public benefactor. See TRUSTS.

Schwab, JOHN CHRISTOPHER, author; born in New York in 1865; graduated at Yale College in 1886, and studied in German universities in 1887–89; was editor of the *Yale Review* from 1892 and librarian Yale University from 1905. He is the author of *History of New York Property Tax; Revolutionary History of Fort Number Eight; Confederate States of America,* etc.

He speaks in the last-named book concerning the Confederate finances at the end of the Civil War: "At last public expenses were met like those of a bankrupt corporation, by creating a huge floating debt, represented by large arrears, amounting to four or five hundred million dollars in the War Department, and a vast amount of accumulated unpaid warrants in the Treasury."

Schwan, THEODORE, military officer; born in Germany, July 9, 1841; joined the United States army in 1857; served creditably during the Civil War; was promoted first lieutenant in April, 1864, and received the brevet of major for gallant and meritorious services; was appointed brigadier-general of United States volunteers in 1898, and won distinction in the Philippines, where he captured Cavite, Viejo, Novaleta, Rosario, San Cruz, and other places in the province of Cavite. He was promoted brigadier-general U. S. A., and retired, both in 1901.

Schwatka, FREDERICK, explorer; born in Galena, Ill., Sept. 29, 1849; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1871, and commissioned second lieutenant in the 3d United States Cavalry. He secured a leave of absence in 1878 and took command of the Sir John Franklin search expedition which sailed from New York on June 19 in the *Eothen.* In a fifteen months' tour he succeeded in clearing up a great deal of the mystery in connection with that fated expedition. In 1886 he had charge of a special expedition to Alaska, and later made a second exploring tour in that territory. His publications include *Along Alaska's Great River; The Franklin Search, under Lieutenant Schwatka; Nimrod of the North;* and *Children of the Cold.* He died in Portland, Ore., Nov. 2, 1892.

Schwenkfelders, a religious sect founded by Hans Kaspar Schwenkfeld in Silesia. In 1734 most of its members, owing

to persecution, emigrated to Pennsylvania. They have 8 organizations, 725 members, and 2,950 Sunday-school scholars.

Scientific Management, a system of economical operation of industrial enterprises introduced in many parts of the United States in 1911. The high cost of labor and other considerations induced a general investigation of causes and a rearrangement of processes to lessen productive costs. This was accomplished in various ways, but in general the method was based on a few fundamental principles of organization, the standardization of conditions and operations, discipline, instruction to employés, and rewards for increased efficiency. The application of the basic principles, it was claimed, would produce a higher degree of prosperity for both employers and employés, as by the increase of production its cost would be decreased to the employer through labor charges per unit and reduction of waste, while the employé, through conservation of effort, would produce more and better work, and, by rewards, gain increased compensation.

Many of the foremost engineers and business men had made careful studies of labor conditions, processes of manufacture and operation, cost-keeping and accounting, rates of compensation, and rewards. The study alone of motion and its standardization had already produced remarkable cost reductions, largely through employés being required to operate machines to the point of maximum efficiency. The planning of work, written instructions to employés for the performance of each part of their work, and the system of close inspection and following-up, by which a constant check is kept on the productiveness of the plant, all enter into the new system. Frederick W. Taylor, M. E., Sc. D., in his work on *The Principles of Scientific Management* (1911), reduced the system to a combination of four underlying principles—*viz.*, (1) The development of a true science; (2) the scientific selection of the workman; (3) his scientific education and development; (4) intimate friendly co-operation between the management and the workmen.

As one evidence of the vast importance of the new method it may here be cited that Louis D. Brandeis, the efficiency expert of Boston, declared that the railroads of the country could save $1,000,000 a day by applying scientific principles to their management, and that on this declaration the New York Central System engaged Prof. Henry C. Adams, statistician of the Interstate Commerce Commission, to apply the new method to its construction and operation problems. A further evidence was had in the appointment by the Secretary of the Navy of a special commission to devise a system of scientific management for the work of the navy-yards.

Scientific Schools. In 1837 Horace Mann, and in 1839 Henry Barnard, came forward as the first of a class of professional educators. The first thoroughly organized city schools date from this period.

Parallel with the improvements in lower education was the development of the American universities and scientific schools. The earliest foundation of a scientific school in the United States was the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, New York, established in 1824 as a school of theoretical and applied science. Yale University established the Sheffield Scientific School in 1847; Harvard University founded the Lawrence Scientific School in 1848; Dartmouth followed with the Chandler Scientific School in 1852; and Columbia University established the School of Mines in 1864.

Alongside these universities, separate scientific and provisional schools arose, such as the West Point Military Academy, the Jefferson Medical School of Philadelphia, and the College of Physicians and Surgeons of New York City, etc.

Schools for practical teaching of trades in the United States began with the foundation of the New York City trade schools in 1881. Similar schools have been established in many of the larger cities in the United States, the leading ones being Pratt Institute, Brooklyn; the Armour Institute, Chicago; the Philadelphia Master Builders' Exchange, etc. (See EDUCATION; TECHNOLOGY; MANUAL AND TRAINING SCHOOLS, COLLEGES, etc.)

Scioto Company. Soon after the settlement of Marietta was commenced (see OHIO COMPANY), an association was formed called The Scioto Land Company. The history of that company is involved

in some obscurity. Col. William Duer, of New York, was an active member. It was founded in the East. They, at first, purchased lands of the Ohio Company, and appointed Joel Barlow their agent in Europe to make sales of them. Barlow had been sent to England by the Ohio Company for the same purpose. He distributed proposals in Paris in 1789, and sales were effected to companies and individuals in France. On Feb. 19, 1790, 218 emigrants sailed from Havre to settle on these lands. They arrived at Alexandria, Va., on May 3, crossed over to the Ohio River, and went down to Marietta, where about fifty of them settled, and the remainder went to another point below, opposite the mouth of the Great Kanawha, where they formed a settlement called Gallipolis (town of the French). These emigrants were to be furnished with supplies for a specified time, but the company failed to keep their promises. They suffered much. They failed, also, in getting clear titles to their lands, and the company was charged with swindling operations. The settlers, through the good offices of Peter S. Duponceau, of Philadelphia, obtained a grant from Congress of 25,000 acres opposite the Little Sandy. It was ever afterwards known as "The French Grant." Each inhabitant had 217 acres. The aims of the Scioto Company seem to have been simply land speculation, not founding actual settlements. "It comprised," Dr. Cutter says, "some of the first characters in America." They undoubtedly expected to purchase public securities at their then greatly depreciated values, and with them pay for the lands bought of the government; but the adoption of the national Constitution caused a sudden rise in the value of these securities, and blasted the hopes of the company. Colonel Duer, who seems to have been the originator of the scheme, suffered the unjust imputation of being a swindler, because the company did not (for it could not) meet its obligations.

Sclopis, PAUL FREDERICK DE SALERNO, **COUNT,** diplomatist; born in Turin, Italy, Jan. 10, 1789; studied law at the University of Turin; took his legal degrees in 1818; and soon rose to eminence as a lawyer and jurist. He was also distinguished as an historian, and gave his first historical lecture before the Turin Academy of Science, in 1827. This was followed, in 1833, by a *History of Ancient Legislation in Piedmont* and the *History of Italian Legislation.* His fame as a jurist was enhanced by his drawing up with great ability the civil code of Sardinia in 1837. In 1845 Count Sclopis became a corresponding member of the Institute of France, and a foreign member in 1869. He was created minister of justice and ecclesiastical affairs in Piedmont in March, 1848, after having held the office of president of the superior commune of censorship. At the close of 1849 he entered the Piedmontese Senate, of which he was president until that principality was merged into the kingdom of Italy, in 1861, when he held the same office in the Italian Senate. At about that time he became president of the Turin Academy of Sciences; and in 1868 Victor Emanuel bestowed upon him the order of Annunziata, the highest of the kingdom. When, in 1871, Victor Emanuel was asked to appoint an arbitrator for the tribunal, at Geneva, to decide upon the claims growing out of the devastations committed by the cruiser *Alabama,* he selected Count Sclopis, and he was chosen by his colleagues president of the tribunal. For his services on that occasion, the United States government presented him a service of silver-plate. He died in Turin, March 8, 1878.

Scotch-Irish. Many persons distinguished in the annals of the United States were and are of Scotch-Irish descent—a hardy people, formed by an intermixture of Scotch, English, and Irish families, nearly 300 years ago. Queen Elizabeth found her subjects in Ireland so uncontrollable that she determined to try the experiment of transplanting to that island the reformed religion, with some of her English and Scotch subjects. It was a difficult and dangerous experiment, for the Irish regarded it simply in the light of a measure for their complete subjugation. Elizabeth did not meet with much success, but her successor, James I., did. He determined to introduce whole English and Scotch colonies into Ireland, that by so disseminating the reformed faith he might promote the loyalty of the people. These were sent chiefly to the northerly portions of Ireland; first, to

six counties in Ulster, which were divided into unequal proportions—some of 2,000 acres, some of 1,500, and some of 1,000. These were allotted to different kinds of persons—first, British undertakers, who voluntarily engaged in the enterprise; second, servitors of the crown, consisting of civil and military officers; and, third, natives, whom the King hoped to render loyal subjects. The occupants of the largest portion of lands were bound, within four years, to build a castle and bawn (a walled enclosure for cattle), and to settle on their estates forty-eight able-bodied men, eighteen years old or upward, of English or Scotch descent. The second class were also required to put up suitable buildings, and to plant English or Scotch families on their possessions within two years. These colonists from Scotland and England intermarried with the natives, and from this union sprang the race of law-loving, law-abiding, loyal, enterprising freemen from whom came many of the best settlers in Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina.

Scotch-Irish Society of America, a society organized in May, 1889, when the first Scotch-Irish congress was held at Columbia, Tenn. It is composed of the people of Scotch-Irish descent, residents of the United States and Canada. Its purpose is declared to be "the preservation of Scotch-Irish history and associations, the increase and diffusion of knowledge regarding the Scotch-Irish people, the keeping alive of the characteristic qualities and sentiments of the race, the promotion of intelligent patriotism, and the development of social intercourse and fraternal feeling." State societies are being formed, and the growth of the organization is expected to be large, as the race is widely extended over the Union, and particularly in the middle South, where such men as Andrew Jackson, John C. Calhoun, and Sam Houston were its types. Membership includes females as well as males.

Scott, CHARLES, military officer; born in Cumberland county, Va., in 1733; was corporal of a Virginia company in the battle of the Monongahela, where Braddock was defeated in 1755. When the Revolutionary War broke out, he raised and commanded the first company organized south of the James River for the Continental service. On Aug. 12, 1776, he was appointed colonel, and was distinguished at Trenton and in the battle of Princeton; and just a year later he was promoted to brigadier-general. He was the last officer to leave the field at Monmouth in 1778. He was conspicuous in the storming of Stony Point, under Wayne, in 1779, and commanded a portion of Wayne's troops in the battle of Fallen Timbers in 1794. He was elected governor of Kentucky in 1808. He died Oct. 22, 1820.

Scott, DRED. See DRED SCOTT CASE, THE.

Scott, HUGH LENOX, military officer; born in Danville, Ky., Sept. 22, 1853; was graduated at West Point in 1876; became brigadier-general, U. S. A., March 23, 1913; and chief of staff, Nov. 13, 1914. He was especially distinguished by his success in settling complaints, revolts, and other troubles among Indian tribes.

Scott, IRVING MURRAY, ship-builder; born in Hebron Mills, Md., Dec. 25, 1837; in 1860 went to San Francisco Union Iron Works. He was the builder of the famous battle-ship *Oregon* in San Francisco; Dewey's flag-ship *Olympia*, coast defender *Monterey*, the cruisers *Charleston* and *San Francisco*, and other naval vessels. He died April 28, 1903.

Scott, JAMES HUTCHISON, naval officer; born in East Liberty, Pa., Feb. 11, 1868; graduated at the Cadet School of the United States Revenue-cutter Service in 1890. When the American-Spanish War began he was made executive officer of the revenue-cutter *Hudson*, and distinguished himself at the battle of Cardenas Bay, Cuba, May 11, when the *Hudson* shielded the disabled torpedo-boat *Winslow*, and towed her out of danger; was later recommended by President McKinley to receive the thanks of Congress and a medal for bravery during hostilities. See BAGLEY, WORTH.

Scott, JOHN, legislator; born in Alexandria, Pa., July 14, 1824; received a good education; admitted to the bar in 1846, and practised in Huntingdon; prosecuting attorney in 1846–49; member of the legislature in 1862; and United States Senator in 1869–75. While in the Senate he made an address favoring the adoption of the "enforcement bill" permitting the

suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus* act in States when KU-KLUX KLAN (*q. v.*) outrages should be perpetrated. He died in Pittsburgh, Pa., March 22, 1889.

Scott, JOHN MORIN, patriot; born in New York City in 1730; graduated at Yale College in 1746; became a lawyer, and was one of the early opponents of the obnoxious laws of Parliament in New York. He and William Livingston, and one or two others, boldly advised in their writings extreme measures. Scott was one of the most active members of the general committee in 1775, and was also a member of the Provincial Congress that year. In June, 1776, he was appointed a brigadier-general, and commanded a brigade in the battle of Long Island. He was a member of Congress from 1780 to 1783. He died in New York City, Sept. 14, 1784.

Scott, ROBERT NICHOLSON, military officer; born in Winchester, Tenn., Jan. 21, 1838; graduated at the United States Military Academy, and commissioned second lieutenant in 1857; served on the Pacific coast till 1861; had charge of the United States steamer *Massachusetts* during the San Juan troubles in 1859; served through the Civil War. In 1878 he was appointed military secretary to the joint commission of Congress on the reorganization of the army, and in the same year became chief of the Publication Office of War Records of the Rebellion. He was author of *Digest of the Military Laws of the United States.* He died in Washington, D. C., March 5, 1887.

Scott, THOMAS ALEXANDER, railroad manager; born in Loudon, Pa., Dec. 28, 1824; became connected with the Pennsylvania Railroad in 1850; and was its president in 1874–80. When the Civil War broke out he had charge of the sending of volunteers to the front. In April, 1861, the Secretary of War requested him to build a railroad branch from Philadelphia to Washington, which he did in a surprisingly short time; in May, 1861, he was placed in command of all government telegraphs and railroads, and on Aug. 1, 1861, appointed assistant Secretary of War. He transported troops and munitions of war by a great number of trains, many of which had to be over improvised tracks connecting the various lines. In 1880 he resigned the presidency of the Pennsylvania R. R. on account of bad health. He died in Darby, Pa., May 21, 1881.

Scott, WILLIAM AMASA, educator; born in Clarkson, N. Y., April 17, 1862; graduated at the University of Rochester in 1886; was professor of history and political science at the University of South Dakota in 1887–90; of economic history and theory of the University of Wisconsin from 1897; director of School of Commerce, from 1900. He is the author of *Repudiation of State Debts; Distribution of Wealth in the United States; Theory of Money; Henry George and His Economic Philosophy; Money and Banking,* etc.

Scott, WINFIELD, military officer; born in Petersburg, Va., June 13, 1786; graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1804; was admitted to the bar in 1806, but entered the army as captain of artillery in 1808; became lieutenant-colonel of artillery in 1812, and adjutant-general, with the rank of colonel, in March, 1813. He was among the prisoners captured at Queenston Heights, and sent to Quebec, with other prisoners of the regular army. There the captives were all paroled excepting twenty-three, who were claimed as British subjects. All the prisoners had been placed on a cartel-ship to be sent to Boston. A party of British officers came on board, mustered the captives, and began separating from the rest those who, by their accent, were found to be Irishmen. These they intended to send to England to be tried for treason. Scott, who was below, hearing a commotion on deck, and informed of the cause, coming up, entered a vehement protest against the proceedings. He ordered his soldiers to be absolutely silent, that their voices might not betray them. He was frequently ordered to go below. He refused, and his soldiers obeyed him. The twenty-three already detected were taken away. Scott assured the officers that if the British government dared to touch a hair of their heads his own government would retaliate in kind and avenge the outrage. He defied the menacing officers. When he was exchanged in January, 1813, he laid the matter before the Secretary of War. He pressed the subject upon the attention of Congress. The President was already vested with power to retaliate, but he never had occasion to do so.

After his exchange, under General Dearborn, he commanded the advance in the attack on Fort George, May 27, 1813, where he was badly burned by the explosion of the magazine. In the fall he commanded the advance of Wilkinson's army in its descent of the St. Lawrence to attack Montreal. In the spring of 1814 he was made a brigadier-general, established a camp of instruction at Buffalo, and early in July gained a victory over the British at Chippewa (see CHIPPEWA, BATTLE OF). Later in the month he fought successfully in the battle of LUNDY'S LANE (*q. v.*), where he was seriously wounded in the shoulder, which left one of his arms partially disabled. For his services in that battle he received the thanks of Congress and a gold medal. At the close of the war he was promoted to major-general, with the thanks of Congress and a gold medal for his services, and was sent to Europe in a military and diplomatic capacity. In 1832 he was in command of the United States forces at Charleston Harbor, during the nullification troubles, and his discretion did much to avert civil war. He was afterwards engaged in the war with the Seminoles and the Creeks, and in 1838 was efficient in accomplishing the peaceful removal of the Cherokees from Georgia. His discreet conduct on the northern and eastern frontiers of the United States in 1839 did much to allay public irritation on both sides. On the death of General Macomb in 1841, Scott became general-in-chief of the armies of the United States, and in 1847 he went to Mexico as chief commander of the American armies there. In a campaign of about six months he became the conqueror of that country, and in the Mexican capital he proclaimed the fact in September, 1847. See MEXICO, WAR WITH.

In 1852 he was the candidate of the Whig party for President of the United States, and in 1859 he, as United States commissioner, successfully settled a dispute arising about the boundary-line between the United States and British America through the Strait of Fuca, on the Pacific coast. When the Civil War broke out, his age and infirmities incapacitated him for taking the chief command. In a letter addressed to Governor Seward on the day preceding Lincoln's inauguration (March 3, 1861), he suggested the limitation of the President's field of action in the premises to four measures—namely, 1. To adopt the Crittenden Compromise; 2. To collect duties outside the ports of seceding States or blockade them; 3. To conquer those States at the end of a long, expensive, and desolating war, and to no good purpose; and, 4. To say to the seceded States, "Wayward sisters, depart in peace!" He was retired from the service Nov. 1, 1861, retaining his rank, pay, and allowances, and was succeeded by General McClellan.

GOLD MEDAL AWARDED TO GEN. WINFIELD SCOTT.

GEN. WINFIELD SCOTT'S LAST MEETING WITH LINCOLN AND HIS CABINET.

Upon the occasion of his retirement, President Lincoln and the entire cabinet waited upon him in a body to pay their respects to one who had rendered notable service to his country. In 1864 he made a brief visit to Europe. He published a *Life of General Scott*, prepared by himself. He died in West Point, N. Y., May 29, 1866.

Scovil, SYLVESTER, journalist; born in Denny Station, Pa., July 29, 1869; graduated at the Michigan Military Academy in 1887. He went to Cuba as war correspondent in October, 1895; was imprisoned in Havana in January, 1896, but escaped. He then lived with the insurgents; passed through the Spanish police and military lines thirty times without detection, but was finally captured, Feb. 7, 1897, and imprisoned in Sancti Spiritus, Cuba. Later he was set at liberty through the negotiations of the United States government. He served afterwards as correspondent in the Græco-Turkish War, in Spain, in the Klondike, in Havana prior to the destruction of the *Maine*, and with the United States navy and army till the close of the American-Spanish War, and was consulting engineer for the United States military government, in the Cuban customs service, in 1899–1902. He died in 1905.

Screw-Propeller. The screw-propeller, which took the place of the paddle-wheel in the early days of steam navigation, was practically introduced through the efforts of CAPT. JOHN ERICSSON (*q. v.*).

Scripture, EDWARD WHEELER, psychologist; born in Mason, N. H., May 21, 1864; was graduated at the College of the City of New York in 1884; was director of the psychological laboratory of Yale University in 1892–1902; investigator for the

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT

Carnegie Institution in 1902–06; director of psychiatric laboratory of Columbia University from 1909. He discovered a method of producing anæsthesia by electricity, a method of measuring hallucinations and imaginations, and the law of "mediate association of ideas." He also invented a color-sight tester by which color-weak or color-blind persons employed in marine and railroad service can be detected.

Scruggs, WILLIAM LINDSAY, diplomatist; born near Knoxville, Tenn., Sept. 14, 1836; was admitted to the bar in 1858; United States minister to Colombia in 1871–77 and in 1882–87; United States consul-general in China in 1878–82; and United States minister to Venezuela in 1889–93. He was the legal adviser and special agent for Venezuela to arrange the Anglo-Venezuelan boundary dispute in 1894–98; brought the matter to arbitration in 1897. He is the author of *British Aggresions in Venezuela, or the Monroe Doctrine on Trial; Lord Salisbury's Mistakes; The Colombian and Venezuelan Republics; Evolution of American Citizenship; Origin and Meaning of the Monroe Doctrine; Evolution of the XIVth and XVth Amendments,* etc.

Scudder, HENRY MARTYN, clergyman; born in Panditeripo, District of Jaffna, Ceylon, Feb. 5, 1822; came to the United States in 1832; graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1840; ordained in the Presbyterian Church in 1843. He sailed for Madras as a missionary in the latter year, and remained abroad till 1864. While in Madras he studied medicine and opened a hospital and dispensary for the poor. He was pastor of churches in Jersey City, Brooklyn, and Chicago, between 1865 and 1887, and then went to Japan as a missionary. He published several works in the Tamil language, among them *Liturgy of the Reformed Protestant Church; The Bazar Book; Sweet Savors of Divine Truth, a Catechism;* and *Spiritual Teaching.* He died in Winchester, Mass., June 4, 1895.

Scudder, HORACE ELISHA, author; born in Boston, Mass., Oct. 6, 1838; graduated at Williams College in 1858; was editor of the *Riverside Magazine for Young People* in 1867–70, and of the *Atlantic Monthly* in 1890–98. He was author of *Life of Noah Webster; Boston Town; A History of the United States; A Short History of the United States; George Washington,* etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Jan. 11, 1902.

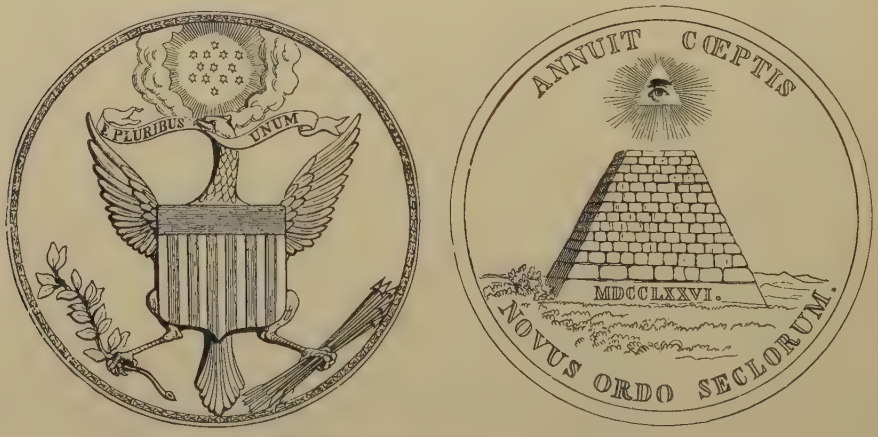
Sculpture Society, NATIONAL, an organization with headquarters at New York; incorporated in 1896. It is composed of lay and sculptor members, and has for its object the spreading of the knowledge of good sculpture, the fostering of the taste for ideal sculpture and its production, both for the household and museums; the promotion of the decoration of public and other buildings, squares, and parks with sculpture of a high class; the improvement of the quality of the sculptor's art as applied to industries, and the providing from time to time for exhibitions of sculpture and objects of industrial art in which sculpture enters.

"Sea Adventurer," THE. Under the new charter of the London Company given in 1609, Sir Thomas Gates, lieutenant-governor of Virginia, Sir George Somers, admiral, and Captain Newport, vice-admiral, sailed in the *Sea Adventurer* with eight other vessels, bearing about 500 emigrants to Virginia. The fleet was dispersed in a storm, and the *Sea Adventurer* was wrecked on one of the Bermuda islands—the "still vexed Bermoothes" of Shakespeare. William Strachey was with them, who wrote a vivid account of the wreck. "Such was the tumult of the elements," wrote Strachey, "that the sea swelled above the clouds, and gave battle unto heaven. It could not be said to rain: the waters like whole rivers did flood in the air." For three days and four nights they were beaten by this storm, while the ship was leaking fearfully. The *Sea Adventurer* outlived the storm; when it ceased she lay fixed between two rocks on the Bermuda shore. It is believed that Strachey's account of this storm and shipwreck inspired Shakespeare to write his *Tempest.*

Seabury, SAMUEL, first Protestant bishop in the United States; born in Groton, Conn., Nov. 30, 1729; graduated at Yale College in 1748; ordained a minister of the Church of England in London in 1753. On his return he first settled as a minister in New Brunswick, N. J., then in Jamaica, L. I. (1756–66), and finally in Westchester county, N. Y., where he remained until the beginning of the Revo-

lutionary War. He was a loyalist, and at one time was chaplain of the King's American Regiment. Becoming obnoxious to the patriots as the suspected author of some Tory pamphlets, the Connecticut Light-horsemen, under Sears, seized him and took him to Connecticut, where he was imprisoned for a time. His authorship was not proved, and he was released, and while the British held possession of New York he spent most of his time in that city. Going to England after the Revolution, he obtained consecration as bishop by the Scotch prelates at Aberdeen, Nov. 14, 1784, and afterwards fulfilled the episcopal office in New London until his death, in New London, Conn., Feb. 25, 1796. Bishop Seabury assisted Bishop White in the revision of the *Book of Common Prayer*, and in framing the constitution of the Church, which was adopted in 1789.

Seal of the United States, GREAT. On July 4, 1776, the Continental Congress, after declaring the English-American colonies to be free and independent States, appointed a committee to report a device for a seal—the emblem of sovereignty. That committee and others, from time to time, presented unsatisfactory devices. Finally, in the spring of 1782, Charles Thomson, the secretary of Congress, gave to that body a device mainly suggested to John Adams, then United States minister to Great Britain, by Sir John Prestwich, an eminent English antiquary. This suggestion was made the basis of a design adopted by Congress June 20, 1782, and which is still the device of the great seal of the country. It is composed of a spread-eagle, the emblem of strength, bearing on its breast an escutcheon with thirteen stripes, alternate red and white, like the national flag. In its right talon the eagle holds an olive-branch, the emblem of peace, and in its left thirteen arrows, emblems of the thirteen States, ready for war should it be necessary. In its beak is a ribbon bearing the legend "E Pluribus-Unum"—"Many in One"—many States making one nation, a motto doubtless suggested by its appearance on the title-page of the London *Gentleman's Magazine*. Over the head of the eagle is a golden light breaking through a cloud surrounding thirteen stars, forming a constellation on a blue field. On the reverse is an unfinished pyramid, emblematic of the unfinished republic, the building of which—the increase of States in the Union is still going on. In the zenith is an all-seeing eye surrounded by light, and over this eye the words "Annuit Cœptis"—"God favors the undertaking." On the base of the pyramid, in Roman numerals, is the date 1776, and below the words "Novus Ordo Seclorum"—"A new order



FIRST GREAT SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES.*

*This is the size of the recumbent seal which has been in use ever since the date of its adoption, in 1782.

of ages." This was for a pendant seal, now not used; the recumbent seal, the obverse above described, being always used. See UNITED STATES GREAT SEAL.

GREAT SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES.

Seal of the Confederacy, GREAT. See CONFEDERATE STATES.

Sealed Orders, written instructions, generally to naval officers. In the American navy such orders come from the President, and are delivered to a commander of a ship or squadron by a confidential messenger who knows nothing of their contents. Sometimes they are in cipher, but they are always sealed with the official seal of the Navy Department, and the package cannot be opened till the time marked on it, usually several hours after the hour of leaving port. By this precaution the newspapers are prevented from disclosing prematurely movements which may be of great importance, and the spies of an enemy are rendered useless so far as their ability to discover the secret of such movements is concerned. Sailing under sealed orders is now the common naval practice in time of war.

Sealsfield, CHARLES, author; born in Poppitz, Moravia, Austria, March 3, 1793; came to the United States soon after 1822, and changed his name from Karl Postel to Sealsfield. His publications include *American and German Elective Affinities; South and North,* etc. He died in Solothurn, Switzerland, May 26, 1864.

Seaman, EZRA CHAMPION, author; born in Chatham, N. Y., Oct. 14, 1805; admitted to the bar of New York in 1826. In 1849–53 he was head clerk to the United States comptroller of the treasury. Later he was State-prison inspector for Michigan. His publications include *Essays on the Progress of Nations; Commentaries on the Constitution and Laws, People and History of the United States; The American System of Government,* etc. He died in Ann Arbor, Mich., July 1, 1880.

Seamen, IMPRESSMENT OF. On June 25, 1798, Congress passed an act authorizing all merchant vessels to defend themselves against any search, seizure, or restraint on the part of any vessel under French colors; and to subdue and capture as good prize any vessel attempting such search or seizure; and to retake any vessel seized by the French, with benefit of salvage.

The American ship *Baltimore,* Captain Phillips, sailed out of the harbor of Havana on the morning of Nov. 16, 1798, in charge of a convoy, bound for Charleston, S. C. In sight of Morro Castle she met a British squadron, and Phillips bore up to the *Carnatic,* the British flag-ship, to speak to the captain, when three of the convoys were cut off from the rest and were captured by the British vessels. Captain Phillips, by invitation, went on board the *Carnatic,* when he was informed that every man on the *Baltimore* not having an American protection should be transferred to the British flag-ship. Phillips protested against the outrage, and declared that he would formally surrender his vessel and refer the matter to his government. On returning to the *Baltimore,* he found a British officer mustering his men. Fifty-five of them were transferred to the *Carnatic,* and the colors of the *Baltimore* were lowered. Five of the men were pressed into the British service, the remainder were sent back, and the *Baltimore* was released. The case was laid before the government of the United States. This outrage upon the sovereignty of the nation—the practical application of the claim of the British government to the right of search and impressment—aroused fierce indignation throughout the Union; yet the American government not only submitted meekly, but committed an act of the most flagrant injustice. Captain Phillips was dismissed from the navy, without a trial because he surrendered

his vessel without a show of resistance, and no notice was taken of the British outrage. The administration, in deference to Great Britain, had instructed the American naval commanders not to molest the cruisers of any nation (the French excepted)—not even to save their own vessels; and Phillips, because of his strict adherence to this order, was cashiered.

Admiral Berkeley, in command of the British North American naval station, issued a circular, June 1, 1807, at Halifax, addressed to all commanders on his station, reciting that many seamen, subjects of his Britannic Majesty, and serving in vessels of the royal fleet (naming them), had deserted those vessels, enlisted on board the American frigate *Chesapeake*, and had openly paraded the streets of New York, in sight of their officers, under American colors, and protected by the magistrates of the town and the recruiting officer, who refused to give them up on demand of the commanders of the ships to which they belonged, or on that of the British consul. The commanders to whom this circular was addressed were directed, in case of meeting the *Chesapeake* at sea, without the limits of the United States, to show this order and to search the vessel for deserters. It was done, and four deserters were seized and carried to Halifax.

On the failure of negotiations between the United States and Great Britain on the subject of impressments, measures were taken to call for the return of all British seamen to the service of their native country, commanding them forthwith to leave the service of foreign nations, whether on board merchant vessels or in ships-of-war. A royal proclamation to this effect was issued Oct. 17, 1807. All commanders of British ships-of-war were authorized by the proclamation to seize and bring away from on board foreign merchant vessels all British mariners. A demand was also made for all British mariners serving on board foreign ships-of-war to leave that service and return to the royal navy immediately. This proclamation seemed to shut the door to further negotiations on the subject of impressments. See IMPRESSMENTS.

Search, RIGHT OF. See IMPRESSMENT.

Sears, EDWARD I., journalist; born in County Mayo, Ireland, in 1819; graduated at Trinity College, Dublin, in 1839; came to the United States in 1848; Professor of Languages in Manhattan College for many years; editor of the *National Quarterly* in 1860–76. He died in New York City, Dec. 7, 1876.

Sears, ISAAC, patriot; born in Norwalk, Conn., in 1729. His ancestors were from Colchester, England, and were among the earlier emigrants to Massachusetts, landing at Plymouth in 1630. He was one of the most earnest, active, and pugnacious of the Sons of Liberty in New York; was a successful merchant there, engaged in the European and West India trade, when political matters arrested his attention. After the passage of the Stamp Act he became a prominent leader of the opposition to that measure. He was thoroughly hated by the government and the Tory party, and was in custody on a charge of treason when the news of the fight at Lexington reached New York. Because of his leadership, his enemies called him "King Sears." He was maligned, caricatured, satirized, and made the object of Tory squibs and epigrams like the following, which was published when the committee of fifty-one refused to recommend a revival of the non-importation league:

> "And so, my good masters, I find it no joke,
> For York has stepped forward and thrown off the yoke
> Of Congress, Committees, and even King Sears,
> Who shows you good nature by showing his ears."

Rivington abused him in his newspaper without stint. Sears retaliated by entering the city, Nov. 23, 1775, at the head of some Connecticut horsemen, and destroying that publisher's printing establishment. In the spring of 1776 he was Gen. Charles Lee's adjutant. In 1785 he sailed for Canton, China, where he died, Oct. 28, 1786.

Sears, JOSEPH HAMBLEN, publisher; born in Boston, April 10, 1865; graduated at Harvard University, 1889; became president of the publishing firm of D. Appleton & Co. in 1904; author of *The Governments of the World To-day; Fur and Feather Tales; None but the Brave;* etc.

Sears, ROBERT, publisher; born in St. John, New Brunswick, June 28, 1810; settled in New York City in 1832; began

the publication of illustrated works in 1839; and did much to develop the art of wood engraving in the United States. Among his publications the most important is the *Pictorical History of the United States*. He died in Toronto, Canada, Feb. 17, 1892.

Seaton, WILLIAM WINSTON, journalist; born in King William county, Va., Jan. 11, 1785; received a private education; early engaged in journalism. He became editor of the Petersburg *Republican*, and later published the *North Carolina Journal* in Halifax, Va. In 1812 he settled in Washington and became connected with JOSEPH GALES, JR. (*q. v.*), his brother-in-law, in the publication of the *National Intelligencer*. In 1812–20 he and his partner were the only Congressional reporters, as well as editors of their paper. With Mr. Gales he was the author of *Annals of Congress; Debates and Proceedings in the Congress of the United States from March 3, 1798, till May 27, 1824; Register of Debates in Congress from 1824 to 1837;* and *American State Papers, Edited by Walter Lowné and M. St. Clair Clarke*. He died in Washington, D. C., June 16, 1866.

Seattle, city and capital of King county, Wash.; on the eastern shore of Puget Sound; 28 miles n. of Tacoma; is within sight of the snow-capped ranges, the Olympics on the w., and the Cascades on the s. e., and also of Mount Rainier on the s., with an altitude of 14,363 feet. It is the commercial centre of the Puget Sound region, and since 1897 has been the starting-point in the United States for the Alaska gold-fields. There are a United States Custom House, Weather Bureau Station, and Land Office; manufactories capitalized at over $25,000,000, with annual products of $30,000,000; direct steamer communication with China, Japan, Hawaii, the Philippines, and various European, South American, and American Pacific coast ports; the State University and numerous other high-grade institutions; and a property valuation exceeding $185,000,000.

The city was settled and named after an Indian chief in 1852; incorporated as a town in 1865 and as a city in 1869; in its early history had a vigilance committee to protect Chinese immigrants from lawless elements; had a $15,000,000 fire in 1889, and a large but less destructive one in 1910; was the seat of the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition in 1909; was one of the first cities to adopt the commission form of government; and, after the woman-suffrage amendment to the State constitution was adopted in 1910, was one of the first commission cities to avail itself of the "recall." Pop. (1900), 80,671; (1910) 237,194.

Seawell, MOLLY ELLIOT, author; began writing stories in 1886; author of *Paul Jones; Midshipman Paulding; A Virginia Cavalier; The Rock of the Lion; Twelve Naval Captains* (used as a text-book in the United States Naval Academy); *Gavin Hamilton*, etc.

Sebastian, WILLIAM KING, legislator; born in Vernon, Tenn., in 1814; graduated at Columbia College in 1865. Removed to Arkansas and was successively prosecuting attorney, circuit judge, and judge of the Arkansas Supreme Court. Was United States Senator from Arkansas, 1847–61, when he was expelled for disloyalty. The Senate afterwards revoked the resolution of expulsion. He died in Memphis, Tenn., May 20, 1865.

Secession. See JACKSON, ANDREW; NULLIFICATION; WOOD, FERNANDO.

Secession, CONSEQUENCES OF. See CLAY, HENRY.

Secession in New England Colonies. In 1747 the towns of Suffield, Somers, Enfield, and Woodstock, originally settled under Massachusetts grants, and assigned to that province in 1713, finding taxation there enhanced by its military operations, applied for annexation to Connecticut. They seemed to be clearly within the Connecticut charter. They asked permission of Massachusetts to withdraw. The request was refused. They then withdrew without the consent of Massachusetts, were annexed to Connecticut, and still remain part of the State. Massachusetts threatened an appeal to the King and council, but, fearing she might, as in her controversy with New Hampshire, not only lose these towns, but other territory, nothing further was done.

During the colonial period the various colonies were independent of each other. After the Revolutionary War they were so loosely united under the Articles of Federation that it became imperative to

change the form of the general government. When the Constitution was adopted many of the leaders and a large part of the people still believed in State sovereignty. (See articles WHISKEY INSURRECTION; KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS.) The purchase and annexation of Louisiana alarmed the Federalists of New England, as they foresaw the creation of many future States from the vast Territory of Louisiana. JOSIAH QUINCY (*q. v.*) of Massachusetts voiced their opinions in his speech of Jan. 14, 1811. During the War of 1812 the feeling in New England became more intense. They came to the conclusion that the war must be brought to an end, and that Madison and the administration at Washington must be coerced to this object or else secession would take place. Joseph Story, himself a New-Englander, but a moderate Republican, had written as early as August, 1812, at the very beginning of the war: "I am thoroughly convinced that the leading Federalists meditate a severance of the Union, and that if public opinion can be brought to support them they will hazard a public avowal of it." Pickering, the most radical of the Federalists, declared in a letter to Gouverneur Morris, in October, 1814: "I have even gone so far as to say that the separation of the Northern section of the States would be ultimately advantageous." In justice to those men who wrote about and talked about secession, it should be said that during the first thirty-five years of the federal government under the Constitution it was a possibility often suggested; to assert it was not really terrifying, and called for no governmental action.

Early in the year 1814 memorials were sent up to the Massachusetts legislature from many towns, suggesting a convention of delegates from the different states to "obtain such amendments and explanations of the Constitution as will secure them from further evils."

The proposition of the Massachusetts legislature was acceded to, and on Dec. 15, 1814, twenty-six delegates representing the New England States met at Hartford, Conn. See HARTFORD CONVENTIONS.

Secession of Southern States. State pride, the mother of the doctrine of State supremacy, was conspicuously manifested in the formation of the League of States under the Articles of Confederation. It was also conspicuous in the convention that framed the national Constitution, and especially so in the State conventions called to ratify that document. It was so strong in New York that the ratification was effected by only one majority in the convention. Whenever the imperious will of politicians became thwarted by a public policy opposed to their wishes, they were in the habit of speaking of a dissolution of the Union as the remedy for the provocation. Such was eminently the case with the opposers of Jay's treaty in 1795. Such was the tone of the famous KENTUCKY AND VIRGINIA RESOLUTIONS OF 1798 (*q. v.*). So threatening to the peace of the Union had the expression of such threats become during the administration of President Washington that the chief burden of his *Farewell Address* was a plea for union. The purchase of Louisiana and its creation as a State called forth threats of secession from New England politicians (see QUINCY, JOSIAH, and STATES, RIGHT OF SECESSION OF), and the positive declarations of Calhoun to Commodore Stewart, in 1812, of the intention of the Southern politicians to dissolve the Union in case of a certain contingency, showed the alarming prevalence of this idea in the slave-labor States. It was put forth conspicuously in the debates on the admission of Missouri. After the tariff act of 1828, so obnoxious to the cotton-growers, became a law, the citizens of St. John's parish, S. C., said in convention: "We have sworn that Congress shall, at our demand, repeal the tariff. If she does not, our State legislature will dissolve our connection with the Union, and we will take our stand among the nations."

When, in the autumn of 1832, the famous nullification ordinance was passed, so positive were the politicians of South Carolina that the dissolution of the Union was nigh that they caused a medal to be struck with this inscription, "John C. Calhoun, First President of the Southern Confederacy." In 1836 a novel was written by Beverly Tucker, of Virginia, called *The Partisan Leader*, in which the doctrine of State supremacy and sectional feeling was inculcated in the seductive form of a romance, which was widely cir-

culated at the South, and made the people familiar with the idea of secession as a great good for that section. "Southern Rights Associations" were founded, having

SCENE AT A SECEDERS' CONVENTION.

for their object the dissolution of the Union. These were active at the time of the excitement about the admission of California into the Union. One of the most active of the Virginians in these movements was M. R. H. Garnett (who was in Congress when the Civil War broke out). In a letter to W. H. Trescott, a leader in the "Southern Rights Association" of South Carolina (May, 1851), Garnett mourned over the action of Virginia in hesitating to enter into the scheme of revolution then. "I do not believe," he wrote, "that the course of the legislature is a fair expression of the popular feeling. In the East, at least, the great majority believe in the right of secession, and feel the deepest sympathy with Carolina in opposition to measures which they regard as she does. But the West—Western Virginia—here is the rub! *Only* 60,000 *slaves to* 494,000 *whites!* When I consider this fact, and the kind of argument which we have heard in this body, I cannot but regard with the greatest fear the question whether Virginia would assist Carolina in such an issue . . . You will object to the word Democrat. Democracy, in its original philosophical sense, is, indeed, incompatible with slavery and the whole system of Southern society." Mr. Garnett expressed a fear that if the question was raised between Carolina and the national government, and the latter prevailed, the last hope of Southern civilization would expire. Preston S. Brooks, who assaulted Senator Sumner of Massachusetts, when alone at his desk in the Senate, said, in an harangue before an excited populace in South Carolina, "I tell you that the only mode which I think available for meeting the issue is, just to tear in twain the Constitution of the United States, trample it under foot, and form a Southern Confederacy, every State of which shall be a slave-holding State. . . . I have been a disunionist from the time I could think. If I were commander of an army, I never would post a sentinel who would not swear slavery was right. . . . If Frémont be elected President of the United States, I am for the people, in their majesty, rising above the laws and leaders, taking the power into their own hands, going, by concert or not by concert, and laying the strong arm of South-

ern power upon the treasury and archives of the government."

In order to carry out the design of the few leaders of the secession scheme to have the whole fifteen slave-labor States belong to a projected Southern Confederacy, four of the State conventions which adopted ordinances of secession appointed commissioners to go to these several States as missionaries in the cause.

Ordinances of secession were passed in eleven States of the Union in the following order: South Carolina, Dec. 20, 1860; Mississippi, Jan. 9, 1861; Florida, Jan. 10; Alabama, Jan 11; Georgia, Jan. 19; Louisiana, Jan. 26; Texas, Feb. 1; Virginia, April 17; Arkansas, May 6; North Carolina, May 20, and Tennessee, June 8. Only one of these ordinances was ever submitted to the people for their consideration. See CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA; articles on the States composing the Confederacy; and suggestive titles of the persons and events that were conspicuous in the Civil War.

Secret Committee. On Nov. 29, 1775, the Congress resolved "That a committee of five be appointed for the sole purpose of corresponding with our friends in Great Britain, Ireland, and other parts of the world, and that they lay their correspondence before Congress when directed, and that all expenses that might arise by carrying on such correspondence, and for the payment of such agents as the committee might send on this service, should be defrayed by the Congress." This was the germ of the American State Department and the initial step in the foreign diplomacy of the United States. The members chosen were Benjamin Harrison, Dr. Franklin, Thomas Johnson, John Dickinson, and John Jay. A correspondence was immediately opened with Arthur Lee, in London, and C. W. Dumas (a Swiss gentleman), residing in Holland.

Secret Service, UNITED STATES, a bureau connected with the Treasury Department, whose chief object is to guard against the counterfeiting of the money of the United States and the detection and punishment of the counterfeiters. It is presided over by a chief, who has under him a number of skillful detectives, stationed in special fields of operation on occasions of emergency. Regarding the necessity for and the danger involved in the work, John E. Wilkie, who became chief of the bureau in 1898, writes: "Certainty of swift detection should perhaps prevent counterfeiting, but so long as there is a gambler's chance of escape there will be found those who feel sure they can succeed where others have failed. Hence the necessity for the secret service branch of the government. And as the making of spurious money is a fascinating enterprise for a cunning rogue, so the checkmating of that same rascal in the countless schemes devised to yield an illegitimate fortune is a game of absorbing interest to him who plays it. The liberty of one, perhaps the life of one or the other, are the stakes in this battle royal." See WILKIE, JOHN ELBERT.

Sectarian Influences. In 1775 the American members of the Church of England had, through natural affection for the mother Church, an aversion to a severance, in any particular, from Great Britain; and a large number of these, especially of the clergy, took sides with the crown in the conflict that ensued. The other denominations, excepting the Friends, or Quakers, were generally among the friends of the colonists. The Congregational ministers of New England and their flocks were almost without exception Whigs, and the larger part of the Presbyterians, who derived their origin from the dissenting section of the Scotch Church, were in political sympathy with the Congregationalists. Both had opposed the scheme of the Anglican Church, through the society for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts, to establish an Episcopacy in the colonies. These two branches of the English dissenting body cherished a traditionary opposition to British control, political or ecclesiastical, and the Congregationalists had just passed through a bitter controversy on the subject of the introduction of bishops into America. Witherspoon, who was at the head of the College of New Jersey, was sent as a delegate to the Continental Congress.

The native-born Presbyterians were nearly all Whigs, while the Scotch Presbyterian emigrants, who were mostly in the Southern colonies, adhered to the crown. Such was the case of that class in the interior of New York, under the

influence of the Johnson family in the Mohawk region. In Virginia, where Episcopacy was the established and prevailing form of religious organization and mode of worship, sectarian zeal had not been excited, and sectarianism had very little influence on political questions. Even the scheme for an American bishop was denounced by the Virginia Assembly as "the pernicious project of a few mistaken clergymen." The Friends, who, governed by their "peace principles," had, while having control of the legislature of Pennsylvania, opposed all measures for the public defence of the province that seemed to involve the necessity for the use of weapons of war, now deprecated the action of the Whigs for the same reason, and they were almost universally Tories, though generally of the passive kind; yet there were many noble exceptions among them, who did what they could to promote the independence of the colonies.

While the Provincial Convention of Pennsylvania was in session early in 1775, and after it had passed a resolution that, "if the British administration should determine to effect by force a submission to the late acts of Parliament, in such a situation we hold it an indispensable duty to resist, by force, and at every hazard to defend the rights and liberties of America"—a position strongly sustained by Thomas Mifflin, a Quaker member of the convention—the Friends, in a yearly meeting assembled, put forth a testimony, in which the members of the society were called upon "to unite in abhorrence of every measure and writing tending to break off the happy connection of the colonies with the mother country, or to interrupt their just subordination to the King." They were not always passive Tories. This "testimony," which gave great offence to many Friends who were patriots, led to the arrest of several leaders and their banishment from the province, and the execution of two of them for active participation with the British. See QUAKERS.

Seddon, JAMES ALEXANDER, lawyer; born in Falmouth, Va., July 13, 1815; graduated at the law school of the University of Virginia; was a member of Congress in 1845–47 and 1849–51; of the peace convention which met in Washington Feb. 4, 1861, and of the first Confederate Congress; and was Secretary of War in the cabinet of Jefferson Davis in 1862-65. He died in Goochland county, Va., Aug. 19, 1880.

Sedgwick, CATHERINE MARIA, educator; born in Stockbridge, Mass., Dec. 28, 1789; and conducted a private school for fifty years. Her publications include *A New England Tale; Hope Leslie, or Early Times in Massachusetts* (2 volumes); *The Linwoods, or Sixty Years Since in America*, etc. She died near Roxbury, Mass., July 31, 1867.

Sedgwick, JOHN, military officer; born in Cornwall, Conn., Sept. 13, 1813; graduated at West Point in 1837; served in the Seminole War and the war against Mexico, where he became highly distinguished; was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861. In May, 1862, he was promoted to major-general, and led a division in Sumner's corps in the Peninsula campaign imme-

GEN. JOHN SEDGWICK.

diately afterwards. At the battle of Antietam he was seriously wounded, and in December he was put in command of the 9th Army Corps. In February, 1863, he took command of the 6th Corps, and in

the Chancellorsville campaign, in May, he made a brave attack upon the Heights of Fredericksburg, and carried them, but was compelled to retire. During the Gettysburg campaign he commanded the left wing of the army; and in November following, near the Rapidan in Virginia, he captured a whole Confederate division. He entered earnestly upon the Richmond campaign in the spring of 1864, and performed signal service in the battle of the Wilderness. Afterwards, while superintending the planting of a battery, he was shot by a sharp-shooter and instantly killed near Spottsylvania Court-house, May 9, 1864.

Sedgwick, ROBERT, military officer; born in England in 1590; was one of the first settlers of Charlestown, Mass. (1635); an enterprising merchant, and for many years a deputy in the General Assembly. Having been a member of an artillery company in London, he was one of the founders of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery of Boston, in 1638, and was its captain in 1640. In 1652 he was promoted to the highest military rank in the colony. In 1643 he was associated with John Winthrop, Jr., in the establishment of the first furnace and iron-works in America. In 1654, being in England, he was employed by Cromwell to expel the French from the Penobscot; and was engaged in the expedition of the English which took Jamaica from the Spaniards. He was soon afterwards promoted to major-general. He died in Jamaica, May 24, 1656.

Sedgwick, THEODORE, jurist; born in Hartford, Conn., in May, 1746; entered Yale College, and left it without graduating in 1765. Abandoning the study of divinity for law, he was admitted to the bar in 1766. An earnest patriot, he entered the military service and served as aid to General Thomas in the expedition to Canada in 1776, and was afterwards active in procuring supplies for the army. Before and after the Revolutionary War he was a representative in the Massachusetts legislature, and in 1785–86 was a delegate in the Continental Congress, also in the national Congress from 1789 to 1797. He performed efficient service in putting down Shays's insurrection; and he was one of the most influential advocates of the national Constitution, in the convention in Massachusetts, in 1788. He was United States Senator from 1796 to 1799, and from 1802 until his death, in Boston, Jan. 24, 1813, was a judge of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts.

Sedition Laws. See ALIEN AND SEDITION LAWS.

Seeley, LEVI, educator; born in North Harpersfield, N. Y., Nov. 21, 1847; graduated at the Albany Normal School, and studied three years in German universities; was appointed Professor of Pedagogy at the Trenton Normal School in 1895. He is the author of *The American Common School System; The Grube System of Numbers; The German Common School System and its Lessons to America; History of Education,* etc.

Seelye, ELIZABETH EGGLESTON, author; born in St. Paul, Minn., Dec. 15, 1858; daughter of EDWARD EGGLESTON (*q. v.*); received a private school education; was married to Elwyn Seelye in 1877, and settled near Lake George. She is the author of *Tecumseh, Montezuma, Pocahontas* (with Edward Eggleston); *The Story of Columbus; The Story of Washington; Lake George in History; Saratoga and Lake Champlain in History,* etc.

Seelye, JULIUS HAWLEY, educator; born in Bethel, Conn., Sept. 14, 1824; graduated at Amherst College in 1849; and later studied theology in Auburn Seminary and in Halle, Germany; was ordained and became pastor of the First Reformed Dutch Church in Schenectady, N. Y., in 1853; Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy in Amherst College in 1858–75; elected to Congress in 1874; president of Amherst College in 1876, resigning in 1890. He died in Amherst, Mass., May 12, 1895.

Seelye, LAURENUS CLARK, educator; born in Bethel, Conn., Sept. 20, 1837; graduated at Union College in 1857; and later at Andover Theological Seminary, and at Berlin and Heidelberg universities; was pastor of the North Congregational Church, Springfield, Mass, in 1863–65; Professor of English Literature and Oratory at Amherst College in 1865–74; organized and became the first president of Smith College, Northampton, Mass., in 1873.

Seeman, BERTHOLD, traveller; born in Hanover, Germany, Feb. 28, 1825; educated at the University of Göttingen. In 1846

he was appointed naturalist on the British government vessel *Herald*, which made an exploring expedition around the world. He published *Popular Nomenclature of the American Flora*, etc. He died in Nicaragua, Oct. 10, 1871.

Seidel, NATHANIEL, missionary; born in Lauban, Silesia, Oct. 2, 1718; was ordained in the Moravian Church; came to America in 1742, and became an untiring evangelist among the settlers and the Indians; spent eighteen years of uninterrupted travel principally in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and New England as far as Boston. In 1753 he founded a Moravian colony in North Carolina; in 1761 was made presiding bishop of his church, and discharged the duties of that office with great faithfulness until his death in Bethlehem, Pa., May 17, 1782.

Seidl, ANTON, orchestral conductor; born in Budapest, Hungary, May 7, 1850; studied music at the Leipsic Conservatory, and later became a confidential friend and amanuensis of Richard Wagner during the latter's labors at Bayreuth. After rapidly rising in fame as Wagner's assistant conductor and as a general conductor at Leipsic in 1878 as the leader of the Angelo Neuman tour with the Nibelungen dramas, and at the Bremen Opera House in 1883–85, Mr. Seidl was engaged, in 1885, as conductor for the Metropolitan Opera House, New York, to succeed Dr. Leopold Damrosch. During his incumbency of this post, there were produced under his direction, for the first time in America, Wagner's *Das Rheingold; Siegfried; Götterdämmerung; Tristan und Isolde;* and *Die Meistersänger.* He died in New York, March 28, 1898.

In addition to his duties as conductor at the Metropolitan Opera House, Mr. Seidl was, at various times during his residence in the United States, conductor of the New York Philharmonic Society, the Seidl Society, the Brighton Beach concerts, the Astoria concerts, and various other musical enterprises. With his orchestra he made several tours through the country, giving concerts in nearly all of the principal cities. In the summer of 1897 he was one of the conductors at the Wagner Festival in Bayreuth, where he attracted much attention by his reading of *Parsifal.*

Selectmen. The New England colonies at their town-meetings elected officers to govern the town. They were called selectmen.

Self-Defence, LAW OF. See LIVINGSTON, EDWARD: *Capital Punishment.*

Selfridge, THOMAS OLIVER, naval officer; born in Boston, Mass., April 24, 1804; joined the navy in 1818; served in the Mexican War in 1847–48 as commander of the sloop *Dale,* and participated in the capture of Matanzas and Guaymas. He served creditably during the Civil War; was retired on reaching the age limit in April, 1866; and promoted rear-admiral in July following. He died in Waverly, Mass., Oct 15, 1902.

Selfridge, THOMAS OLIVER, naval officer; born in Charlestown, Mass., Feb. 6, 1836; son of Thomas Oliver Selfridge; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1854; was promoted lieutenant in February, 1860; was second lieutenant on the *Cumberland* when she was sunk in Hampton Roads by the *Merrimac;* was commander of the iron-clad steamer *Cairo* when she was destroyed in the Yazoo River by a torpedo; participated in the capture of Vicksburg. He was made admiral in 1896, and retired in 1898.

Seligman, EDWIN ROBERT ANDERSON, educator; born in New York City, April 25, 1861; graduated at Columbia College in 1879; was professor of political economy and finance in that institution from 1891. He is the editor of the *Columbia Series in History, Economics, and Public Law,* and author of *Railway Tariffs; Finance Statistics of American Commonwealth; The Shifting and Incidence of Taxation; Progressive Taxation in Theory and Practice; Essays in Taxation; Economic Interpretation of History,* etc.

Seminole Indians, a tribe of Florida Indians, made up of two bands of the Creeks, who withdrew from the main body in 1750, and remnants of tribes who had come in contact with the Spaniards. The Seminoles were hostile to the Americans during the Revolutionary War and afterwards. The Creeks claimed them as a part of their nation, and included them in a treaty with the United States in 1790; but the Seminoles repudiated it and made war upon the Americans, and affiliated with the Spaniards in 1793. They

were also enemies of the United States in the War of 1812, when they were under Spanish rule. At that time they were divided into seven clans, and were rich in live-stock and negro slaves. The Creek War led to trouble between the Seminoles and the Georgians, and in 1817 they began hostilities.

Towards the close of that year a motley host, composed chiefly of Seminoles and runaway negroes, began murderous depredations upon the frontier settlements of Georgia and Alabama. Gen. E. P. Gaines, then in command of the garrison at Fort Scott, on the north bank of the Flint, was ordered to suppress these outrages. He demanded of the Indians on the opposite bank the surrender of certain alleged murderers; but they refused to give them up, on the ground that the Georgians had been the first aggressors.

Under authority from the War Department to expel these Indians from the lately ceded Creek lands north of the Florida line, Gaines attacked an Indian village, a few miles below Fort Scott, in the night. Three or four of the inhabi-

MAP OF SCENE OF THE SEMINOLE WAR.

tants were killed or captured, the rest escaping into the woods. In another skirmish soon afterwards two or three were killed on both sides. This movement of Gaines aroused the fiercest anger of the Indians, who, it was ascertained, were incited by British subjects protected by the Spanish authorities in Florida. The Indians revenged the attacks of Gaines by waylaying a boat ascending the Apalachicola with supplies for Fort Scott. Of forty men and a number of women and children on board, all were killed except six men and one woman. Gaines was in a perilous position. He received orders to carry the war into Florida if necessary, with directions, however, that if the Indians took refuge under any Spanish fort, not to attack it, but report to the War Department. For his own protection he called out a body of Georgia militia; and when news of the disaster on the Apalachicola reached the government, General Jackson, who commanded in the Southern Department, was ordered (January, 1818) to take the field in person.

With 1,000 Tennessee mounted volunteers, Jackson hastened to the aid of Gaines, and reached Fort Scott March 9, after a march of 400 miles. These, with a body of Georgia militia and 1,000 regulars at Fort Scott, made a force sufficient to invade Florida if necessary. Jackson was joined by friendly Creeks, under their chief—McIntosh—who held the commission of a brigadier-general in the United States army. So short were supplies in that region that Jackson had to depend upon provision-boats ascending the Apalachicola from New Orleans, and, as a depot for these supplies, he built a new fort on the site of the old Negro Fort, and called it Fort Gadsden. On March 26 he marched eastward against the Seminole villages in the vicinity of the present city of Tallahassee, being joined on the way by a fresh body of friendly Creeks (April 1) and a few more Tennessee volunteers. The Seminoles made but slight resistance. Their villages were burned, and a considerable spoil in corn and cattle was obtained. Unrestrained by such orders as Gaines had received, and satisfied that the Seminoles were continually encouraged to make war by the British and Spaniards, he proceeded to the Spanish post of St. Mark's, the only one in that region, and its surrender being refused on his demand, he took it by force, though without bloodshed.

There he found Alexander Arbuthnot, a Scotch trader with the Seminoles, whom he suspected of mischief, and held him a prisoner. An American armed vessel on the coast having hoisted the British flag, two refugee Creek chiefs were enticed on board, one of whom, the Prophet Francis, had lately visited England and ex-

SEMINOLE INDIANS FOLLOWING A TRAIL.

cited some sympathy there. These chiefs Jackson hanged. From St. Mark's Jackson marched against an Indian town on the Suwanee River and burned it. The Indians and negroes there were led in its defence by Robert Ambrister, connected with Arbuthnot in trading enterprises, and he, too, was made prisoner. Returning to St. Mark's, Arbuthnot and Ambrister were tried (April 26) by a court-martial. Both were found guilty of stirring up the Indians to war, and executed.

Meanwhile one or two other Indian towns were destroyed by Georgians; and a rumor reaching Jackson of encouragement being given by the Spanish governor at Pensacola to Indian raids into Alabama, the general marched for that place. He was met on the way by a protest from the governor against the invasion of Florida, and his determination to resist it by force. But Jackson pressed on, and entered Pensacola the next day (May 24), with only a show of resistance. The governor fled to the fort at the Barrancas, which Jackson assailed with cannon, when the alarmed magistrate thought it prudent to surrender (May 27). The Spanish authorities and troops were sent to Havana. When Jackson's proceedings in Florida were made known in Washington the Spanish minister (Don Onis) protested against this invasion of Spanish territory. Jackson had ended the Seminole War, and the object of the government being accomplished, the President offered to restore Pensacola at once, and St. Mark's whenever Spain should have a force there competent to control the neighboring Indians. The Secretary of State (J. Q. Adams) justified Jackson's conduct, holding that the war with the Seminoles had originated entirely in the instigations of Arbuthnot and Ambrister, with the encouragement of the Spanish authorities.

By a treaty made in 1823, the Seminoles

gave up nearly all their territory for a consideration; but some refused to accede, and were allowed to remain on small reserves, with the understanding that they were to hunt and deliver fugitive slaves. Dissatisfaction followed, and the Georgians clamored for their removal. An attempt to remove them by force caused the kindling of a second war in 1835. In his annual message in December, 1830, President Jackson recommended the devotion of a large tract of land west of the Mississippi River to the use of the Indian tribes yet remaining east of it. Congress passed laws in accordance with this recommendation, and in May, 1832, some of the chiefs of the Creeks and Seminoles, in council, agreed to remove. Other chiefs and the great body of the nation refused to comply with the terms of the treaty, and trouble ensued. In 1834 the President sent Gen. Wiley Thomson to Florida to make a forcible removal of the Seminoles if necessary. Osceola (*q. v.*) stirred up the nation to resistance. One day his insolent bearing and offensive words in Thomson's presence caused that general to put the chief in irons, and in prison, for a day. Osceola's wounded pride called for vengeance, and it was fearfully wrought during a war that lasted about seven years. By bravery, skill, strategy, and treachery, he overmatched United States troops sent against him and commanded by some of the best officers in the service; but he was secured and subdued finally by an act of perfidy on the part of a United States officer.

A SEMINOLE CHIEF.

The first blow was struck in the December of 1835. Osceola, with all the cunning of a Tecumseh and the heroism of a Philip, began the war by an act of perfidy. He had agreed to fulfil treaty stipulations, and to send some horses and cattle to General Thomson; but at the very time he was to do so he was, with a small war-party, murdering the unsuspecting white inhabitants on the borders of the everglades, a region mostly covered with water and grass, and affording a secure hiding-place for the Indians. At that time General Clinch was occupying Fort Drane with a small body of troops. That post was in the interior of Florida, 40 miles eastward of the mouth of the Withlacoochee River, and the garrison was there exposed to much danger from the hostilities of the Indians. Major Dade, with more than 100 soldiers, was sent from Fort Brooke, at the head of Tampa Bay, to the relief of Clinch, and, falling into an ambuscade (Dec. 28), he and his followers were all massacred excepting four men, who afterwards died from the effects of the encounter. That event occurred near Wahoo Swamp, on the upper waters of the Withlacoochee. On the same day Osceola and a small war-party, unobserved, stole up to a store a few yards from Fort King (about 60 miles southwest of

St. Augustine), where General Thomson and five of his friends were dining, and murdered them. Osceola killed and scalped the general with his own hands, and so he enjoyed the revenge he had sought.

Three days afterwards General Clinch had a sharp fight with the Seminoles on the Withlacoochee, and on the last day of February, 1836, General Gaines was assailed at the same place. The Creeks helped their Florida brethren by attacking white settlers within their domain in the spring of 1836. Being successful, they extended their forays into Georgia and parts of Alabama, attacking mail-carriers on horseback, stage-coaches on the land, and steamboats on the rivers; and finally they assailed villages, and thousands of men, women, and children were compelled to fly from their homes and seek places of safety from the tomahawk, the bullet, and the scalping-knife. Gen. Winfield Scott, in chief command in the South then, prosecuted the war against the Indians with so much vigor that the Creeks were speedily subdued, and during the summer of 1836 thousands of them were removed to lands west of the Mississippi. At about the middle of October Governor Call, of Florida, led about 2,000 militia and volunteers from that State against the Seminoles. Near the place of the massacre of Dade and his command a detachment of them, about 500 in number, had a severe battle with the Indians on Nov. 25, but, like all other encounters with these Indians in their swamp fastnesses, it was not decisive. In that region the United States troops suffered dreadfully from miasmatic fevers, the bites of venomous serpents, and the stings of insects, and the year 1836 closed with no prospect of peace. The war continued all winter in that mild region.

Finally, in March, 1837, several chiefs appeared before General Jesup (then in chief command in Florida), at his quarters at Fort Dade, and signed a treaty which was intended to secure an immediate peace and the instant departure of the Seminoles to the new home prepared for them beyond the great river. The wily Osceola caused this treaty to be violated, and the war was renewed; and it continued all the summer of 1837, during which many troops perished in the swamps while pursuing the Indians. At length Osceola, several chiefs, and seventy warriors appeared in Jesup's camp (Oct. 21), under the protection of a flag, with friendly pretensions. Jesup determined not to trust the treacherous Osceola any more. The conference was held in a grove of magnolias in a dark swamp. As the chief arose to speak Jesup gave a signal, when two or three of his soldiers rushed forward and seized and bound Osceola with strong cords. He made no resistance, but several of his excited followers drew their gleaming hatchets from their belts. They were restrained by the arms of Jesup's troops, and were dismissed without their leader. Osceola was sent to Charleston and confined in Fort Moultrie, where he died, Jan. 31, 1839. Jesup was severely censured for this violation of the sanctity of a flag of truce; but his plea in justification was that it was the only way to stop the distressing war, for Osceola could not be held by the most solemn obligations of a treaty. The "distressing war" had been created by the avarice and greed of the white people, who were seeking, by legal pretences or the unjust violence of the military arm, to drive an ancient nation from their rightful soil.

Although the capture of Osceola was a severe blow to the Seminoles, they continued to fight for their country under other leaders, notwithstanding almost 9,000 United States troops were in their territory at the close of 1837. Their fastnesses in the everglades could not be penetrated by the troops, and they defied them, even after they had received severe chastisement from 600 National troops under Col. (afterwards President) Zachary Taylor, who had succeeded General Jesup in command. This chastisement was given them in a battle fought on Christmas Day (1837) on the northern border of Lake Macaco. After that, for more than two years, Taylor and his men endured great hardships in Florida in attempts to bring the war to a close. A treaty for the purpose was concluded in May, 1839; but so lightly did its obligations bind the Indians that they carried on their depredations whenever opportunity offered. It was not until 1842 that peace was permanently secured.

This war, carried on almost seven years,

cost the United States 1,466 lives and $10,000,000. Then the Seminoles were removed to the Indian Territory, and only about 300 were in Florida in 1842. The negroes were taken from the Seminoles in their new home in such numbers that a large body of them went to Mexico. About half of these in Florida emigrated to the Indian Territory in 1858, and when joined by those in Mexico they numbered 2,256. The tribe was divided on the breaking out of the Civil War, and a large portion of them became allies of the Confederates. The movement was disastrous to them. Finally, in 1866, they went upon a new reservation purchased by the United States of the Creeks, where, steady, sober, and industrious, they rank next to the Cherokees in their progress in civilization. In 1908 there were 275 Seminoles in Florida, and 2,138, besides 986 Seminole "freedmen," in Oklahoma.

Semitic Race. See JEWS AND JUDAISM.

Semmes, RAPHAEL, naval officer; born in Charles county, Md., Sept. 27, 1809; entered the United States navy as midshipman in 1826; commanded the coast survey steamer *Poinsett* in 1843, and the brig *Porpoise* in 1846. In the war against Mexico, he was volunteer aid to General Worth, and was secretary to the light-house board from 1859 to 1861. He accepted the command of the Confederate privateer SUMTER (*q. v.*), with which he depredated upon American commerce. In England the fast-sailing vessel ALABAMA (*q. v.*), was built, furnished, and chiefly manned for him, in which he put to sea in August, 1863, and made a destructive cruise against American vessels and American commerce. She was sunk

RAPHAEL SEMMES.

by the *Kearsarge* off Cherbourg, June 19, 1864. Afterwards Semmes was appointed Professor of Moral Philosophy in the State Seminary of Louisiana, at Alexandria. He wrote *Service Afloat and Ashore during the Mexican War; The Campaign of General Scott in the Valley of Mexico; Memoirs of Service Afloat during the War between the States;* and *The Cruise of the Alabama.* He died in Mobile, Ala., Aug. 30, 1877.

SENATE, UNITED STATES

Senate, UNITED STATES. The following article on the origin, personnel, organization, and history of the United States Senate was written by ex-Senator W. A. Peffer.

Being Englishmen, the founders of the colonies from which grew the United States knew little of any form of government other than that of Great Britain, so their descendants, when they came to form a government of their own and to organize its powers, were naturally inclined to adopt the English system in so far at least as it would not interfere with the free exercise of popular rights. Accordingly, the builders of the Constitution, when they had agreed that the legislative department of the proposed government should consist of a Senate and House of Representatives, and when their discussions turned upon the materials of which the Senate should be composed, frequently alluded to the House of Lords and the character and qualifications of its members as models fit to be studied.

While there was diversity of opinion among the delegates concerning the number of Senators, the manner of choosing them, their duties, etc., there was a general agreement that it would be well to

provide for one legislative body whose members would probably be selected with more care than would likely be exercised by the people at large in popular elections, and who, therefore, would presumably be less susceptible to influences of sudden movements among the voters. Mr. Madison said: "The use of the Senate is to consist in its proceeding with more coolness, with more system, and with more wisdom than the popular branch."

The then existing government of the United States was administered by the Continental Congress, a body composed of able, patriotic, brave men, but they had not authority to levy taxes or collect revenues or coin money. They were not empowered to regulate commerce, either domestic or foreign. In the Articles of Confederation, each State retained its "sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right," which was not by the confederation "expressly delegated to the United States in Congress assembled." It was conceded on all hands that a stronger government was necessary for the safety of the republic —a government with full powers for national purposes, having original and exclusive jurisdiction over all matters appertaining to the people of the United States as a nation, and the convention called for May 14, 1787, at Philadelphia, was held for the purpose of preparing a form for such a government.

In enumerating the powers deemed necessary for the successful operation of the new government machinery, the several States were required to surrender some important prerogatives of sovereignty, and in order to make sure that they would not be overreached by the federal power and that the small States would not be crowded to the wall by the larger ones, it was provided that not only should there be two Houses of Congress, but that "no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate." And to make it reasonably certain that every State would always be represented in the Senate, it was further provided that each State should have two Senators, one in each of two of the three classes into which the Senate was to be divided, and that each Senator should have one vote.

The Senators first chosen answered well to the ideals outlined by delegates in the convention which created the office of Senator. One-half of them had been members of the convention that framed the Constitution, and seventeen of the twenty-two had taken part in the work of the Continental Congress. Eleven of them were lawyers, and among the other half the record shows one merchant, one man of business, one physician, and one farmer.

It is provided in the Constitution that the Senators, "immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of their first election, shall be divided as equally as may be in three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year." In pursuance of this provision the members of the Senate, at its first session, divided themselves by lot into three classes, according to the following order:

"Ordered, that the secretary put into the ballot-box three papers of equal size, one of which shall be numbered 1, one of which shall be numbered 2, and one of which shall be numbered 3. The Senator from each of said States whose name comes first in alphabetical order shall thereupon in the presence of the Senate, draw one of said papers from the box in behalf of his State. The Senators from the States drawing the paper numbered 1 shall thereupon first be assigned to their respective classes. The Senators from the States drawing paper number 2 shall next be assigned to their respective classes. The Senators from the States drawing paper number 3 shall next be assigned to their respective classes."

That classification has been strictly followed from that time to the present. Every Senator chosen since from any of the States then and there represented has gone into the class of his first predecessor in line, and when a new State has been admitted its first Senators were assigned to their classes by lot, just as was done in the first instance, and their successors have followed in the same classes. This classification of its members makes the Senate a permanent and continuing body. Two-thirds of its members are always in

office. There is never less than a quorum of its members ready for duty. The House of Representatives is chosen anew every two years. No member of that body ever holds over. When the House adjourns *sine die* at 12 M., March 4, of the odd-numbered years, the term of that House is ended, and until the new Congress meets there is no House of Representatives. When the members chosen at the last election meet in special or regular session, they must organize by choosing a speaker, clerk, and sergeant-at-arms before they can do any business, even to the extent of receiving a message from the President. It must adopt new rules or readopt old ones. In law and in fact it is wholly a new body fresh from the people, though some of its members may have been there before.

Not so with the Senate. Its officers hold continuously until they are relieved by the choice of others. The Senate is always organized. The rules of the body never change, or they go out of force only in accord with methods provided in the rules themselves. On the incoming of a new administration, March 4, at 12 M., the Senate is then regularly in session, for that is the closing hour of a term of Congress—two years. The new Vice-President appears at the side of his retiring predecessor and receives the oath of office from him. This done, the old Vice-President formally declares the Senate adjourned *sine die* and hands the gavel over to his successor, who says, "The Senate will be in order," and at once proceeds to business, without the least confusion or interruption. He enters immediately upon the discharge of his duties. The officers of the Senate are present in their places, the reporters at their tables, the seargeant-at-arms and his corps of assistants—all on duty, and the standing and select committees of the body are ready to receive and consider any matter that may be referred to them. The Senate is already organized. In law and in fact it is now the same body that counted its first quorum on the 6th of April, 1789.

The effect of this continuity of the Senate has been to give character and weight to its proceedings, to inspire confidence at home and insure respect abroad. Such a body, clothed as this is with the power to ratify treaties, renders complications with foreign governments less probable and our obligations more likely to be observed.

The installation of the new Senators is a very simple proceeding. As their names are called in alphabetical order by the secretary of the Senate they go forward to the Vice-President's desk, escorted usually by their State colleagues, and take the oath of office.

If, for any reason, the Vice-President-elect should not appear at the beginning of the session, the duties of his office are performed by the president *pro tempore;* and in case of the latter's absence another Senator previously agreed upon would take the oath and discharge the duties of the chair until the Vice-President appear or the Senate determine otherwise.

If a vacancy happen in a Senator's term by death, resignation, or otherwise, during a recess of the legislature of his State, the executive thereof may make a temporary appointment to hold until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancy. The person so appointed or elected does not hold beyond the end of that senatorial term. In case the legislature fail to choose a Senator at the proper time the governor is not authorized to appoint. The vacancy continues until the next meeting of the legislature. The word "meeting" in this case is construed to include the whole session.

"'No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.' No Senator shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the United States which shall have been created, or of which the emoluments shall have been increased, during such term. No person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of the Senate during his continuance in such office. No person shall be a Senator who, having as a federal or State officer, taken an oath to support the Constitution, afterwards engaged in rebellion against the United States, unless Congress remove such disability."

Usually men beyond middle age are selected for Senators. The oldest member of the body at any time in office,

Justin S. Morrill, of Vermont, was born April 14, 1810, and died Dec. 28, 1898, in his eighty-ninth year. He had been longer in the Senate, too, than any other man, having entered on March 4, 1867. Henry Clay entered the Senate at an earlier age than any other. He was appointed Nov. 19, 1806, to fill a vacancy. Mr. Clay was born April 12, 1777.

Among the curious facts connected with the personal history of some of the Senators may be mentioned these: Gen. James Shields represented three different States in the Senate—Illinois, from March 4, 1849, till March 3, 1855; Minnesota, from May 12, 1858, till March 3, 1859; Missouri, from Jan. 24, 1879, till March 3, 1879. Three men of the same family—James A. Bayard, his son of the same name, and his grandson, Thomas F. Bayard—represented Delaware, the first from January, 1805, till March, 1813; the second from April, 1867, till March, 1869, and the third from March, 1869, till March, 1885. Three other men of the same family name also represented Delaware in the Senate—Joshua Clayton, from Jan. 19, 1798, till his death the following July; Thomas Clayton, from Jan. 8, 1824, till March 3, 1827, and again from Jan. 9, 1837, till March 3, 1847; John M. Clayton, from March 4, 1845, till Feb. 23, 1849, and again from March 4, 1853, till his death, Nov. 9, 1856. Three men named Bell, two of them brothers, the third a son of one of them, represented New Hampshire in the Senate—Samuel Bell, from March 4, 1823, till March 4, 1835; his son, James Bell, from July 30, 1855, till May 26, 1859, and Charles Henry Bell from March 13, 1879, till June 17, 1879. At one time during the Cleveland administration both of the Senators from each of three different States resided in the same city, and three Senators occupying adjoining seats and representing two States were born in adjoining counties in one State. In 1892 two Senators, representing one State, had been private soldiers in one and the same volunteer regiment of the Union army.

Eleven Senators afterwards became Presidents of the United States—Monroe, Adams (J. Q.), Jackson, Van Buren, Harrison (William H.), Tyler, Pierce, Buchanan, Johnson, Garfield, and Harrison (Benjamin).

The first Senator that died during his term was William Grayson, of Virginia, whose death occurred March 1, 1790. The custom of taking public and official action on the decease of a Senator and of incurring expense on account thereof was of slow growth. During the first thirty-seven years of the Senate's history twenty-two of its members died and no expense was incurred by Congress in their behalf. The first record of the Senate's official action of any character in such cases appears in the *Journal* of Jan. 24, 1799, as follows: "Resolved, that a committee be appointed to take order for superintending the funeral of the said Henry Tazewell, Esq., and that the Senate will attend the same, and that notice of the event be given to the House of Representatives, and that this committee consist of Messrs. Mason, Brown, and Marshall."

The first time any part of a deceased Senator's funeral expenses was paid out of public funds was on the occasion of the death of John Gaillard, of South Carolina, who died Feb. 26, 1826. Two other Senators died that year—Nicholas Van Dyke, of Delaware, May 19, and Joseph McIlvaine, of New Jersey, Aug. 19. The average public expense incurred on account of these three deaths was $292.47. Within the next twenty-two years—from 1826 to 1847, inclusive—twenty-seven Senators died, and the remains of eleven of them were interred at the government's expense. The average expenditure in those cases was $618.80. From 1848 to 1867, inclusive, twenty-eight Senators died, and eighteen of them were buried by the Senate at an average expenditure of $1,365.13. The record from 1869 to 1894* shows thirty deaths in the Senate, and all but five of these were the occasion of more or less outlay of public money, the aggregate amounting to $68,849.96, an average of $2,754. In all, up to 1894, there were fifty-four interments from and by the Senate, and the last thirteen cost more, by $4,139.82, than all of the other forty-

* There have been a number of deaths in the Senate since 1894, but this writer has not inquired about the details of their obsequies. Presumably the precedents were followed in each case.

one. The total amount of public moneys expended on account of senatorial funerals, up to 1894, is $100,234.18, ranging from $4.50 in one case to $21,322.55 in another. The average is $1,856.37.

These funeral occasions are now accompanied by a great deal of ceremonial display. The casket is placed in the open space in front of the reporter's tables, and the services are attended by the President and cabinet, the House of Representatives, the justices of the Supreme Court in their black robes, and, in full court dress, the resident ambassadors and ministers of foreign countries. Each of these bodies, as they approach the outer door of the chamber, is announced by the doorkeeper, and the Senators rise to receive them. When the services are concluded a committee previously appointed, usually consisting of five Senators and an equal number of members of the House, accompany the remains of the deceased to his home and witness the interment there.

At first it was only in cases of death at the capital during a session of Congress that the Senate felt called upon to make a national matter of the funeral and draw on the contingent fund to defray the expenses. Latterly a custom has grown to send a committee to attend the ceremonies of interment when a Senator dies at home while Congress is in session.

In connection with the decease of Senators a memorial service is held in the Senate chamber a month or so after the time of the death, when addresses are delivered in memory of the dead Senator. These addresses are usually very carefully prepared. They are printed in the *Congressional Record*, the same as remarks submitted in the same place on other subjects, and they are also printed in book form, 8,000 copies in each case (under existing law), 2,000 for the use of the Senate, 4,000 for the use of the House of Representatives, 1,950 for the use of Senators and Congressmen from the State of the deceased, and fifty copies in extra binding for the use of his family. The printing and binding of these memorial addresses cost about $3,000. The exact figures as given in the report of the public printer for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1896, are $9,195.88 for the materials and work done in printing and binding 8,000 copies of the memorial addresses in each case of the deaths of three Senators. The average is $3,065.29.

A similar custom prevails in the House of Representatives. The expense for printing and binding memorial addresses in memory of fifty-four deceased Senators and Congressmen from 1885 to 1895, both inclusive, was $233,520.44.

As to compensation of Senators and Representatives, it is to be "ascertained by law." That is the language of the Constitution, and it means that Congress shall fix its own compensation.

No distinction has ever been made between members of the two Houses in respect to the amount of their pay. Their compensation has always been equal. By the act of Sept. 22, 1789, it was fixed at $6 for every day's attendance, and an equal sum for every 20 miles' travel going to and returning from the "seat of Congress." This rule was to remain in force until March 4, 1795, when it was to be changed to $7 per day and mileage to correspond. March 10, 1796, the law of 1789 was re-enacted and it remained in force until the act of March 19, 1816, increased the pay to $1,500 a year, subject to deduction for absence not occasioned by sickness or other unavoidable reason.

This act was repealed the 6th day of the following February (1817), and on Jan. 22, 1818, the compensation of each Senator and Representative was fixed at $8 for every day's attendance and $8 "for every 20 miles of estimated distance, by the most usual road from his place of residence to the seat of Congress, at the commencement and end of every such session and meeting." This act was to cover the time from March 3, 1817, and it remained in force until Aug. 16, 1856, when the rate of compensation was changed from $8 a day to $6,000 for each Congress (two years), mileage remaining the same as before, for but only one session each year.

By act of July 28, 1866, a yearly salary of $5,000 was allowed with mileage at the rate of 20 cents per mile to and from each regular session, "estimated by the nearest route usually travelled."

The act of March 3, 1873, fixed the

salary at $7,500 a year and actual individual travelling expenses to and from each session "by the most direct route of usual travel." This act applied to the Congress that passed it, covering two years, and from that fact became known as the "salary-grab" law. It was repealed at the next session, Jan. 20, 1874, in so far as it applied to members of the Senate and House of Representatives, and their compensation was put at $5,000 a year with mileage at the rate of 20 cents per mile to and from each regular session.

Most of these acts were retroactive in their operation, that of Sept. 22, 1789, covering the time from the beginning of that Congress. The act of March 10, 1796, extended back six days. The act of March 19, 1816, covered the time from March 4, 1815. The act of Jan. 2, 1818, applied to fifty-three days of past time. The act of Aug. 16, 1856, applied to all the time from March 4, 1855. The act of July 28, 1866, reached back to March 4, 1865. The act of March 3, 1873, covered the whole term of that Congress, beginning March 4, 1871 —two years.

There has not been any general law allowing mileage for attendance upon special or extraordinary sessions. Where it has been authorized it was by special act applicable to the particular session.

There have been two rules regulating the compensation of Senators and Representatives, one before the war of the Rebellion, the other since. The earlier acts were all drawn on lines of actual service —so much a day for each day of attendance upon the sessions, excepting days of sickness or unavoidable absence. The act of 1856, in section 4, provided:

"That in the event of the death of any Senator, Representative, or Delegate prior to the commencement of the first session of the Congress, he shall be entitled neither to mileage nor compensation; and in the event of death after the commencement of any session his representatives shall be entitled to receive so much of his compensation, computed at the rate of $3,000 per annum, as he may not have received, and any mileage that may have actually accrued and be due and unpaid."

Section 6 of the same act provided:

"That it shall be the duty of the sergeant-at-arms of the House and secretary of the Senate, respectively, to deduct from the monthly payments to members, as herein provided for, the amount of his compensation for each day that such member shall be absent from the House or Senate respectively, unless such Representative, Senator, or Delegate shall assign as the reason for such absence the sickness of himself or some member of his family."

The Vice-President, being in doubt when the compensation of Senators that had been chosen since the session commenced should begin, submitted the question to the Senate and it was referred to the judiciary committee, who, through Mr. Toombs, March 2, 1857, submitted a report, from which the following extracts are taken:

"Though the mode of payment is by annual salary, the consideration therefor, in the contemplation of the act (of 1856), was performance of the duties of a member of Congress when in actual session, and the times of payment seem to have been fixed during or at the end of each session, with special reference to securing this consideration. . . . Testing the cases submitted to us by those principles, we find the rule of compensation in all cases of election after the first day of the first regular session to be that the compensation does not commence until after election, and from thence to the end of the term, at the rate of $3,000 per annum."

Minnesota was admitted as a State May 11, 1858, and her Senators, who had been elected Dec. 19, 1857, appeared and took their seats May 12, 1858. The question when their compensation should commence arose, and the judiciary committee reported that they should be paid from the date of the State's admission.

They were paid from the beginning of the session at which the State was admitted. But the question was not settled. Oregon was admitted Feb. 14, 1859; Kansas, Jan. 29, 1861; West Virginia, Dec. 31, 1862; Nevada, Oct. 31, 1864. During all this time the act of 1856 was in force. Then came the act of July 11, 1866, and Nebraska was admitted March 1, 1867. The reorganization of the reconstructed States and the admission of their Senators kept the matter alive until the new Northwestern States came in. The Senators from Tennessee were seated July 27, 1866, and paid from March 4, 1865, the beginning of the Congress then in being (the Thirty-fifth). A Senator from

Maryland was elected for the term beginning March 4, 1867, but he was not admitted and received no compensation. March 7, 1868, another person was elected to fill the vacancy and his salary was paid to him from March 4, 1867, the beginning of the term. Senators from Alabama, Arkansas, South Carolina, and other Southern States claimed and finally secured payment of salaries from the beginning of the terms for which they were elected without reference to the time of their election.

By a proviso in the legislative appropriation bill of July 31, 1894, it was enacted that in cases of the election or appointment of Senators after the beginning of a term their compensation should begin the day of their election or appointment. The legislatures of Montana and Wyoming failed to choose Senators at their sessions in 1893 for the terms beginning March 4 of that year, but did elect Senators for that term at their sessions in January, 1895. The credentials of these Senators were filed in the Senate—one of them Jan. 29, 1895, the other Feb. 2 following. They appeared and took the oath of office, one on Feb. 2, the other on the 6th of the same month. By a resolution of the Senate, April 24, 1896, the secretary of the Senate was directed to pay them from March 4, 1893, the beginning of the term, until July 31, 1894, the date of the proviso in the appropriation bill above mentioned, which had taken effect nearly six months before the Senators were elected.

Section 6 of the act of Aug. 16, 1856, requiring deductions of pay for absence of Senators and Representatives is preserved in the revised statutes, section 40, and is now the law.

Joint Resolution No. 68, approved July, 1862, provides:

"When any member or delegate withdraws from his seat and does not return before the adjournment of Congress, he shall, in addition to the sum deducted for each day, forfeit a sum equal to the amount which would have been allowed by law for his travelling expenses in returning home; and such sum shall be deducted from his compensation, unless the withdrawal is with the leave of the Senate or House of Representatives respectively."

This provision, also, is preserved in the revised statutes as section 41.

The Constitution provides that:

"The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote unless they be equally divided. The Senate shall choose their other officers and also a president *pro tempore* in the absence of the Vice-President or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States."

The first duty of the Senate, on its organization, April 6, 1789, was the choosing of a President *pro tempore* for the sole purpose of opening and counting the (electoral) votes for President of the United States.

John Langdon, of New Hampshire, was chosen by ballot. After the votes had been counted and the members of the House of Representatives had retired, the Senate proceeded by ballot to the choice of president *pro tempore* and John Langdon was duly elected. He held his office only until the Vice-President appeared. In the beginning and until recently a president *pro tempore* was chosen every time the Vice-President was absent. It is now the rule that the office is held at the pleasure of the Senate; until the Vice-President resumes the chair or his term as a Senator expires, the president *pro tempore* continues in office unless the Senate otherwise determine.

During a vacancy in the office of Vice-President, and while the Vice-President exercises the office of President of the United States,* the president *pro tempore* of the Senate receives the salary of a Vice-President, but he has no vote other than that of a Senator.

Of the twenty-four Vice-Presidents, one (Calhoun) resigned; four (Gerry, King, Wilson and Hendricks) died in office; and five (Tyler, Fillmore, Johnson, Arthur, and Roosevelt) exercised the office of President of the United States during vacancies in that office occasioned by death.

All of the twenty-four Vice-Presidents except two (Morton and Stevenson), are dead. Their average age was seventy years.

Sixty-three Senators have served as presidents *pro tempore*. They belonged to twenty-two different States, Virginia

* Whether a vacancy in the office of Vice-President is occasioned by that officer's exercising the office of President of the United States has not been determined.

leading with six; Connecticut, Georgia, North Carolina, New Hampshire, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Vermont each had three; Alabama, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island each had two; Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, and New York each had one. The present incumbent (Mr. Frye) is from Maine.

The other important officers of the Senate are the secretary and sergeant-at-arms. The secretary, in addition to his responsibility for the official conduct of a large number of clerks, readers, reporters, copyists, and other subordinates about his office, has charge of everything connected with the records, journals, reports, bills, and other documents, papers, and proceedings of the Senate, legislative and executive. The secretary is also a disbursing officer and gives bond for a proper discharge of his duties as such. He receives and pays out more than a million dollars annually. This includes salaries and mileage of Senators, of officers, clerks, and other employés about the Senate. Here are the items summarized in that officer's report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1896.

Amounts expended:

Salaries and mileage (of Senators)	$467,175.22
Salary of Vice-President	6,000.00
Salaries of officers, clerks, etc.	422,852.42
One month's extra pay to officers and employés	40,035.61
Salaries Capitol police	19,392.53
Contingent expenses	165,920.55
Total	$1,121,376.33

The sergeant-at-arms, with his corps of assistants, has charge of the Senate wing of the Capitol building. He takes care of the Senate chamber and all the property in it, and of the various rooms, halls, and other apartments and annexes. He purchases all their furniture and other equipments. He attends to all the details of great occasions in and about the hall of the Senate—inaugurations and the like, and he or one of his assistants accompanies every Senate committee that travels by order of the Senate. He arranges for their transportation and entertainment, and pays all the bills. He executes all orders of the Senate relating to any matter of an executive character. He is to the Senate what a marshal or a sheriff is to a court. He is the Senate's executive officer.

The principal offices of the Senate are honorable as well as responsible. They require a high order of talent combined with good executive ability. Two members of the Senate each afterwards became its secretary. In several instances men who had been members of the House of Representatives have been elected to offices in the Senate.

The number of persons employed in one capacity or another in and about the Senate is over 300. An investigation recently discovered 353, among whom were 121 clerks, fifty-seven messengers, fifty-two skilled laborers, twenty-three pages, and eighteen folders.

Salaries of Senate officers and employés range as follows: Laborers and pages, $720 to $1,000 a year; messengers and clerks to Senators, $1,440; clerks to committees, $1,800 to $3,000; secretary's chief clerk and the financial clerk, each $3,000; secretary of the Senate, $5,000; sergeant-at-arms, $4,500. The official reporting of the proceedings and debates is done by contract at $25,000 a year.

At the beginning committees of the Senate were appointed only for special duties —as to wait upon the President, to prepare a rule for a particular proceeding, to consider a certain matter and report a bill, etc. The committee first appointed by the Senate consisted of five members to confer with a like committee on the part of the House of Representatives and report rules to govern in cases of conference between the two Houses. They were also to "take under consideration the manner of electing chaplains." There was some feeling on the chaplaincy question, but the choice of men of different religious denominations—one for the House, the other for the Senate—disposed of the matter satisfactorily.

Gradually, as the lines of legislative procedure became marked, and as the business of Congress grew in magnitude and variety, it was found necessary as well as convenient to appoint standing committees to hold during the pleasure

of the Senate for the consideration of classified subjects. There are now forty-nine standing committees of the Senate, of which one has fifteen members; six consist of thirteen members each; twelve have each eleven members; eleven have nine members; four have seven; four have five; and five have three. The others have even numbers and are subject to changes. There are also ten select committees.

The largest committees are those on appropriations, commerce, judiciary, pensions, claims, coast defences, District of Columbia, finance, foreign relations, immigration, Indian affairs, inter-State commerce, military affairs, naval affairs, post-offices and post roads, public buildings and grounds, public lands, railroads, and Territories.

On March 4, 1789, the day named in the Constitution for the assembling of Congress, only eight Senators appeared, and they adjourned from day to day and from time to time until April 6 next following, when a quorum was present and eleven States were represented. North Carolina and Rhode Island had not yet ratified the Constitution. A roll-call disclosed the presence of the following-named Senators: From New Hampshire, John Langdon and Paine Wingate; from Massachusetts, Caleb Strong and Tristram Dalton; from Connecticut, Oliver Elsworth and William S. Johnson; from New York, Rufus King and Philip Schuyler; from New Jersey, William Paterson and Jonathan Elmer; from Pennsylvania, William Maclay and Robert Morris; from Delaware, Richard Bassett and George Read; from Maryland, Charles Carroll and John Henry; from Virginia, Richard Henry Lee and William Grayson; from South Carolina, Ralph Izard and Pierce Butler; from Georgia, William Few and James Gunn. One-half of them had been members of the convention which framed the Constitution and seventeen of them had taken part in the work of the Continental Congress. Eleven were lawyers, and among the others the record shows one merchant, one man of business, one physician, and one farmer.

Following the practice of the Continental Congress and the Constitutional Convention, the Senate sat with closed doors.* By agreement the Senators arranged themselves in a semi-circle in front of the presiding officer, beginning on the right with New Hampshire and ending on the left with Georgia. The President-elect of the United States not yet having appeared and taken the oath of office, the Senate devoted a good deal of time to the preparation of rules for the proper transaction of business. The manner of communication between the two Houses was referred to a select committee on April 16, and a week later the committee reported that they had conferred with a like committee on the part of the House of Representatives, and they had agreed to report the following rule:

"When a bill or other message shall be sent from the Senate to the House of Representatives it shall be carried by the secretary, who shall make one obeisance to the chair on entering the door of the House of Representatives, and another on delivering it at the table into the hands of the speaker. After he shall have delivered it, he shall make an obeisance to the speaker and repeat it as he retires from the House.

"When a bill shall be sent up by the House of Representatives to the Senate it shall be carried by two members, who, at the bar of the Senate, shall make their obeisance to the president, and thence, advancing to the chair, make a second obeisance, and deliver it into the hands of the president. After having delivered the bill they shall make their obeisance to the president, and repeat it as they retire from the bar."

This report was agreed to and then reconsidered. The subject was again committed and recommitted and on May 2 it was "agreed that until a permanent mode of communication shall be adopted between the Senate and House of Representatives, the Senate will receive messages by the clerk of the House, if the House shall think proper to send him—and papers sent from the House shall be delivered to the secretary at the bar of the Senate, and by him conveyed to the president."

* This practice was continued until the beginning of the session that commenced December, 1794. As early as April 29, 1790, efforts were begun to open the doors when the Senate was in legislative session, but without success (except during the discussion of the Gallatin contested election case), until on Feb. 20, 1794, when a resolution passed to open the doors at the beginning of the next session.

The committee's report was never adopted. The early practice was continued. When the clerk of the House appears inside the door of the Senate chamber with a message, the fact is announced by the doorkeeper thus: "Message from the House of Representatives," when business is temporarily suspended, and the president recognizing "Mr. Clerk," that officer, bowing and addressing the chair, says: "I am directed to inform the Senate that the House has passed ——," a certain bill or resolution, or whatever may be the nature of the information to be communicated. Having thus spoken, he delivers the paper, or papers, to the doorkeeper and politely retires. The document is then delivered to the secretary or his chief clerk, and business is resumed.

The same simple proceeding is had when the President's private secretary appears with a message from the executive. On being announced and recognized by the chair, he says: "I am directed by the President of the United States to deliver a message in writing," or "to announce his approval" of a certain bill, or whatever may have been the President's action on a particular matter.

The Senate communicates with the President through its secretary or by a special committee of its members.

The next subject involving questions of official etiquette which the Senate at the beginning had to determine was: "What style or title it will be proper to annex to the offices of President and Vice-President," and a committee was appointed to consider the matter. The subject was discussed frequently from April 23 until May 14, and many different titles were suggested, as "his Highness," "his Excellency," etc. The committee finally reported in favor of "his Highness, the President of the United States of America and Protector of the Rights of the Same." But the House of Representatives favored the simple language of the Constitution, "The President of the United States," and that has been the form of address ever since.

At first, executive communications were delivered to the Senate by cabinet officers, and when the President wished to communicate in person with the Senate, he informed that body when he would appear, as he did on several occasions, and conferred with the Senate in respect to treaties and appointments. This practice did not long continue, however. The President's private secretary soon came to be the bearer of his messages, and he has performed that service ever since, though the rule providing for the reception of the President, when he calls on the Senate officially, is still preserved and is now in force.

The first message of President Washington was delivered by himself orally in an address before both Houses, and each House, following the custom of the British Parliament, prepared and delivered an "answer" to the address.

The first code of rules adopted for the government of the Senate was severely disciplinarian. One of them required that "inviolable secrecy shall be observed with respect to all matters transacted in the Senate while the doors are shut, or as often as the same is enjoined from the chair." The last one provided that:

> "These rules shall be engrossed on parchment and hung up in some conspicuous part of the Senate chamber. And every Senator who shall neglect attendance during a session, absent himself without leave, or withdraw for more than a quarter of an hour without permission after a quorum is formed, shall be guilty of disorderly behavior, and his name, together with the nature of the transgression, shall be written on a slip of paper and annexed to the bottom of the rules, there to remain until the Senate, on his application or otherwise, shall take order on the same."

Attention, order, and manly bearing, with resulting ease and dignity in speech, were so highly prized by these our first Senators, that seven of their rules of procedure related to personal deportment of members of the body during session hours.

Looking back from this distance, it seems strange that such rigid rules were deemed necessary among gentlemen so punctilious as they. Congress met in Philadelphia the next year and a newspaper writer of that city thus described the Senate's decorum:

> "Among the Senators is observed constantly during the debates the most delightful silence, the most beautiful order, gravity, and personal dignity of manner. They all appear every morning, full powdered and dressed in the richest material. The very

atmosphere of the chamber seems to inspire wisdom, mildness, and condescension. Should any of the Senators so far forget for a moment as to be the cause of a protracted whisper while another was addressing the Vice-President, three gentle raps with his silver pencil-case by Mr. Adams immediately restored everything to repose and the most respectful attention."

These rules were amended and modified from time to time as occasion and experience suggested, and in 1806 a new code was adopted, retaining such of the old as had proven to be suitable for the work of the Senate. The revision included forty rules, the exact number now in force. The most important change from the old code was the omission of the "previous question." Under the operation of that rule a majority of a quorum could at any time stop a debate. The rule was not popular. Only four times in sixteen years had it been invoked, and in one of the instances it was ruled out of order because the matter pending was a preamble and not a substantive proposition.

There have been several attempts to restore the rule, in substance at least, notably in 1841 by Henry Clay, in 1850 by Stephen A. Douglas, in 1870 by Hannibal Hamlin and Henry Wilson; and the subject has been brought to the attention of the Senate occasionally since, when some measure was vigorously urged and persistently opposed, as in the case of the bill to repeal the purchasing clause of the silver law, at the extraordinary session in 1893.

The effect of dropping the previous question has been to broaden the scope of debate and this sometimes provokes unfavorable criticism outside the chamber as well as inside; but it is questionable whether it ever will be, or ought to be, restored.

Without the spur of the previous question the Senate has become more patient and conservative than it was in the beginning. It is nowhere recorded in the proceedings of the Senate, since the century began, that any member of the body was denied the privilege of speaking to any important matter pending. A vote on the main question can be reached only by unanimous consent, and that is never given on any great question until every Senator who desires to speak upon it has had an opportunity to be heard. If he does not conclude to-day he may proceed to-morrow and continue the next day.

And from this courtesy among Senators it sometimes happens that a small matter is the occasion of long, able, and powerful debate on questions in no way related to the pending proposition. No harm has come from this. On the contrary, it has been instructive and helpful. Every great discussion in the Senate has served to enlarge the horizon of liberty and to strengthen the foundations of the republic. As an example take this: In January, 1830, Mr. Foote, a Senator from Connecticut, offered a resolution instructing the committee on public lands to inquire and report certain facts relating to the public domain.

Thomas H. Benton, of Missouri, speaking to the resolution, criticised the Eastern people, because, as he believed, they were disposed to prevent emigration to the Western States and Territories, and would be aided in their efforts by stopping sales of the public lands there. This brought Daniel Webster to the defence of New England, and in his answer to Mr. Benton he alleged that the author of the ordinance of 1787, which opened a vast region of the West to settlement and dedicated the Northwest Territory to freedom, was an Eastern man. Discussing the wisdom of that measure, he referred to the prevailing customs in the South, and made comparisons distasteful to Senators from the slave-holding States. Robert Y. Hayne, of South Carolina, defended his people and arraigned those of the East in a long and able speech.

Mr. Hayne's speech was delivered on Jan. 21. On the 26th, Mr. Webster replied in an argument which has become historic.

Inspired by this battle of giants, Mr. Calhoun, who was then Vice-President, resigned that position that he might enter the Senate as a member, and in July next following he delivered a speech discussing not anything then before the body, but the argument delivered by Mr. Webster six months before.

Following this, at the next session of Congress, came the famous free-trade report of the committee on ways and

means, followed by the nullification proceedings of 1832 and the compromise tariff act of 1833, and eighteen years afterwards by the compromise measures of 1850, and in 1852 by the adoption of the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions of 1798–99, as the creed of the Democratic party, supplemented by the slave-holders' rebellion in 1861—all bearing close and direct relation to what was said in the Senate in the discussion following the introduction of Mr. Foote's modest resolution proposing to inquire whether it would not be wise to temporarily limit the sale of public lands.

Speeches of Senators on important subjects are, in most cases, prepared carefully in advance, reduced to writing and read by the author from manuscript. It is very seldom that a Senator proceeds in a great effort without copious notes, if his speech is not in writing or print before him.

In order to maintain the relative power of parties in the Senate and in order that no Senator need "lose his vote," a custom prevails by which members of opposing parties form themselves into "pairs," and if one of a "pair" is absent when a vote is taken, the other does not vote.

All confidential communications from the President of the United States are considered in secret executive sessions, and all treaties laid before the Senate, and all remarks, votes, and proceedings thereon are kept secret, under the thirty-sixth rule. The fourth clause of this rule provides that "any Senator or officer of the Senate who shall disclose the secret or confidential business or proceedings of the Senate shall be liable, if a Senator, to expulsion from the body; and if an officer, to dismissal from the service of the Senate, and to punishment for contempt."

The injunction of secrecy may be removed, in any given case, by a resolution of the Senate. This is not often done, however, but newspaper reporters have become so expert in their profession that they publish fairly accurate statements of what was said and done in executive sessions of the Senate.

In all cases except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, Senators are privileged from arrest during their attendance at the sessions of the Senate, and in going to and returning from the same, and for "any speech or debate" in the Senate they "shall not be questioned in any other place."

From the beginning it has been the custom to allow newspapers to be paid for out of the "contingent fund," which is a fund to be applied to special uses under the exclusive control of the Senate—as stationery, select committee expenses, etc. At first the number of papers which Senators allowed themselves was limited to three each. Stationery was used without limit until 1868, when the amount allowed to each Senator was fixed at $125 a session for newspapers and stationery. It was subsequently changed to $125 a year, and that is the rule now. If more than that amount is drawn the difference is paid in cash by the Senator; if less is drawn he receives the difference in money.

Senators are privileged to send through the mails, free of charge, any public document printed by order of Congress and official letters to any officer of the government.

Each Senator is entitled to one copy of every government publication, and he may have it bound in half-morocco or material no more expensive.

No person is admitted to the floor of the Senate chamber while the body is in session or during the fifteen minutes immediately preceding the hour of meeting, except the following: The President of the United States and his private secretary, the President and Vice-President-elect, ex-Presidents and ex-Vice-Presidents, judges of the Supreme Court, ex-Senators and Senators-elect, the officers and employés of the Senate in the discharge of their official duties, ex-secretaries and ex-sergeants-at-arms of the Senate, members of the House of Representatives, and members-elect, ex-speakers of the House of Representatives, the sergeant-at-arms and his chief deputy, and the clerk of the House and his deputy, heads of the executive departments, ambassadors and ministers of the United States, governors of States and Territories, the general commanding the army, the senior admiral of the navy on the active list, members of national legislatures of foreign countries, judges of the court of claims, commissioners of the District of Columbia, the librarian of Congress and the assistant

librarian in charge of the law library, the architect of the Capitol, the secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, clerks to Senate committees and clerks to Senators, when in actual discharge of their official duties.

The Senate meets, usually, at twelve o'clock noon. After prayer by the chaplain and the reading of the journal of the last preceding day's proceedings, the first thing in order is the presentation of petitions and memorials; then follow in their order reports of standing and select committees, introduction of bills and joint resolutions, and concurrent and other resolutions.

The first two hours of the session is known as "the morning hour," during which all preliminary proceedings are had, such as debates on Senate resolutions, first and second readings of bills, motions for reference, consideration of matters coming over from a previous day, etc. At two o'clock the presiding officer lays before the Senate the "unfinished business," if there be any, and if not, the calendar is in order.

In addition to the usual prerogatives of parliamentary bodies, the Senate enjoys certain privileges and exercises certain functions and powers which are conferred upon it by the Constitution of the United States. It may originate legislation on any subject over which Congress has jurisdiction, except revenue.

It may concur in, amend or reject any bill or resolution sent to it by the House of Representatives; it may adjourn for any length of time not exceeding three days, without the consent of the other House, but must not adjourn to any place other than that "in which the two Houses shall be sitting." The Senate is the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and it chooses its own officers and makes its own rules. Though a legislative body, it is charged with executive functions in respect to treaties and appointments to office. The President has power to make treaties and appoint officers, but that power has coupled with it—"by and with the advice and consent of the Senate." The President "shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint" ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not otherwise provided for in the Constitution, and which shall be established by law. A simple majority of a quorum may advise and consent to an appointment, but two-thirds of the Senators present are required to ratify a treaty.

Under the operation of the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, taking effect Sept. 25, 1804, the Senate is charged with the duty of choosing the Vice-President in case none of the persons voted for for that office has received a majority of the votes cast; and, when sitting for this purpose, two-thirds of the whole number of Senators must be present, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. The only instance of the Senate's performing this function was in the case of Richard M. Johnson in 1837.

The Senate has power to compel the attendance of absent members, to inflict punishment for disorderly behavior, and with the concurrence of two-thirds may expel a member for any cause deemed sufficient.

The power of the Senate to punish persons not members of the body, for contempt, defamation, libel, etc., has never been clearly and fully defined. None of the cases acted upon has settled any important questions in that direction. Though in some respects fashioned after the model of the Upper House of the British Parliament, the Senate has no judicial power, except in cases of impeachment. Its powers of punishment and expulsion are applicable only to its own members, and were granted for its own protection. The Duane case is in point. William Duane, of Philadelphia, on Feb. 19, 1800, published in the *General Advertiser, or Aurora*, a newspaper of that city, a copy of a bill "prescribing the mode of deciding disputed elections of President and Vice-President of the United States," together with editorial comments thereon, reflecting on the action of the Senate and of certain Senators, naming them, in respect to the alleged passage of the bill, which matter was declared by the Senate to be "false, defamatory, scandalous, and malicious, tending to defame the Senate," and Mr. Duane was summoned to appear

at the bar of the Senate, on a day named, "at which time he will have opportunity to make any proper defence for his conduct," etc. He did appear and asked for the assistance of counsel. The request was granted, but on terms that he regarded as in restraint of his constitutional rights, and he refused to further appear or answer.

On March 27 following, the Senate held that Duane was in contempt and the sergeant-at-arms was directed to take him into custody and hold him subject to further order of the Senate. But Congress being about to adjourn, and the Senate not claiming power to hold a prisoner beyond the session, the President of the United States was requested by a resolution of the Senate, May 14, 1800, to instruct the proper officer to institute an action against Duane for the defamatory publication. An action was begun, he submitted his case to the court, and was sentenced to thirty days' imprisonment and to pay the costs of prosecution.

In several instances happening since Duane's case was disposed of, newspaper reporters have been deprived of the privileges of the floor or gallery, as the case may be, because of publishing matter disrespectful to the Senate or its members.

As to the power of the Senate to compel witnesses to appear and testify, whatever may be its extent, it is not unlimited. The existence of this power was taken for granted until 1857, when the question was raised by the refusal of a witness to testify before a committee of the House of Representatives, with the result that, while the witness was in custody of the sergeant-at-arms, Jan. 21, 1857, the committee before whom he was subpœnaed to testify reported to the House a bill, which became a law three days afterwards, providing for trial and punishment of contumacious witnesses before committees of either House of Congress. The law was changed somewhat by act of Jan. 24, 1862. The present statutory provisions relating to this subject are found in sections 101 to 104, inclusive, and section 859, of the revised statutes of 1878. By section 102, refusal to testify is declared to be a misdemeanor, and section 104 provides that: "Whenever a witness summoned as mentioned in section 102 fails to testify, and the facts are reported to either House, the president of the Senate or the speaker of the House, as the case may be, shall certify the fact under the seal of the Senate or the House to the district attorney for the District of Columbia, whose duty it shall be to bring the matter before the grand jury for their action."

It was under these provisions that the witnesses in the Sugar Trust scandal investigation in 1894 were indicted and tried.

There have been but few cases of disorder among Senators in the Senate chamber of a character requiring official action. Senators rarely violate a rule of order wilfully, and they are usually prompt to make proper explanations and apologies for any breaches of privilege happening among them in debate.

A resolution to expel Benjamin Tappan, a Senator from Ohio, was submitted May 10, 1844. That Senator, in violation of the rule of secrecy, had delivered to a newspaper reporter for publication a copy of the Texas annexation treaty. The resolution was afterwards modified so as to declare that Mr. Tappan "has been guilty of a flagrant violation of the rules of the Senate and disregard of its authority." After the resolution was adopted, it was further resolved, "That in consideration of the acknowledgments and apology tendered by the said Benjamin Tappan for his said offence, no further censure be inflicted on him."

In the case of Senators Benton, of Missouri, and Foote, of Mississippi, a special committee was appointed to report. On several occasions prior to April 17, 1850, these two Senators "had some sharp personal altercations in the Senate. On that date, while Mr. Foote was speaking in reply to Mr. Benton, the latter started from his seat and moved towards Mr. Foote. Mr. Foote left his seat and took a stand in front of the secretary's table, at the same time drawing and cocking a revolver. Mr. Benton was led back to his seat by Senators in the midst of great confusion, and Mr. Foote was induced to surrender the pistol."

The committee reported that the whole scene was most discreditable to the Senate, but recommended no action, expressing the hope that their condemnation

of the affair would be "a sufficient rebuke and a warning not unheeded in future."

The attack on Charles Sumner occurred in the Senate chamber after the body had adjourned, and the offending party was not a member of the Senate.

The Senate has exercised its power of explusion five times. William Blount, a Senator from Tennessee, was expelled July 8, 1797, for complicity in a scheme to transfer New Orleans and adjacent territory from Spain to Great Britain. John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, was expelled Dec. 4, 1861, for participation in the Rebellion. Trusten Polk and Waldo P. Johnson, Senators from Missouri, were expelled Jan. 10, 1862, for aiding and abetting the Rebellion. Jesse D. Bright, of Indiana, was expelled on Feb. 5, 1862, for disloyalty in writing a letter to Jefferson Davis introducing a man who wanted "to dispose of what he regards a great improvement in fire-arms."

In connection with these expulsions for disloyalty it may be stated that the Senators from Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas, and Virginia voluntarily retired between the months of November, 1860, and July, 1861. A. O. P. Nicholson, of Tennessee, retired March 3, 1861.

Of the Senators in office May 1, 1898, twenty-one served in the Confederate army.

The Senate has the "sole power to try all impeachments." The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States are impeachable for "treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors," and on conviction for any of these offences they shall be removed from office; but no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present. There is no appeal from the judgment, and the President, though authorized by the Constitution "to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States," is specially prohibited from interfering in cases of impeachment. They are excepted.

"Judgment, in case of impeachment, shall not extend further than to removal from office and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment according to law."

The Senate is not called upon to determine generally who are "civil officers of the United States"; it is sufficient, in each case as it is presented, to inquire whether the party impeached is included in that class. Articles impeaching William Blount were presented to the Senate for trial in 1797. Mr. Blount, being a member of the Senate, pleaded that he was not a "civil officer of the United States," and on that ground he objected to the jurisdiction of the Senate. On argument, his plea was held good and the impeachment proceedings were dismissed, but on the evidence against him he was expelled from the Senate.

There have been seven cases of impeachment prosecuted before the Senate. (1) The above-mentioned William Blount, a Senator from Tennessee, for violating the neutrality laws of the United States, 1797. (2) John Pickering, district judge, New Hampshire, for having appeared on the bench in a state of intoxication, 1803. (3) Samuel Chase, associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, for that ". . . disregarding the duties and dignity of his judicial character, did, at the circuit court for the District of Maryland, held at Baltimore in the month of May, 1803, pervert his official right and duty to address the grand jury . . . for the purpose of delivering to the said grand jury an intemperate and inflammatory harangue," etc. (4) James Peck, district judge, Missouri, for "high misdemeanors in office," 1826–31. (5) West W. Humphreys, district judge, Tennessee, for advocating the right of secession in a public speech, 1861. (6) Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, for "high crimes and misdemeanors," 1868. (7) William W. Belknap, Secretary of War, for "high misdemeanor in office," 1876–77.

When the Senate tries a case of impeachment, each Senator takes an oath in the following form:

"I solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that in all things appertaining to the trial of the impeachment of —— ——, now pending, I will do impartial justice according to the Constitution and laws. So help me God."

The Senate long ago prepared and adopted a code of rules to govern in the body when sitting on impeachment trials, and in the case of President Johnson, on advice of the chief-justice, the Senate's impeachment code of (twenty-five) rules was formally adopted by the body sitting for the trial of the particular case.

The House of Representatives has the sole power of impeachment. When charges of an impeachable character are preferred in the House against the President, Vice-President, or any civil officer of the United States, a special committee is usually appointed to investigate and report the probable facts, and the judiciary committee consider and report whether, on the facts stated, an impeachable offence has been committed and whether the person charged is probably guilty. If the report is affirmative, a committee of "managers" is appointed by ballot to prepare articles of impeachment and to conduct the prosecution before the Senate. The managers, on the part of the House, in the President's case, were John A. Bingham, of Ohio; George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts; James F. Wilson, of Iowa; John A. Logan, of Illinois; Thomas Williams, of Pennsylvania; Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts; Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania.*

The preliminary proceedings in impeachment cases are formal and tedious. When all things are ready the members of the House, before proceeding to the Senate, resolve themselves into a "committee of the whole House" for the purpose of prosecuting the impeachment and attend in that manner, though none of them but the managers takes part in the proceedings.

When the President of the United States is on trial, the chief-justice presides.

The following is a copy of the opening entry on the journal of proceedings of the trial of the impeachment of President Johnson, March 30, 1868:

"At half-past twelve o'clock, P.M., the chief-justice of the United States entered the Senate chamber, escorted by Mr. Pomeroy, chairman of the committee heretofore appointed for that purpose.

"The chief-justice.—'The sergeant-at-arms will open the court by proclamation.'

"The sergeant-at-arms.—'Hear ye! hear ye! hear ye! All persons are commanded to keep silence while the Senate of the United States is sitting for the trial of the articles of impeachment exhibited by the House of Representatives against Andrew Johnson, President of the United States.'

"The President's counsel, Messrs. Stanbery, Curtis, Evarts, and Groesbeck, entered the chamber and took the seats assigned to them.

"At twelve o'clock and thirty-five minutes, P.M., the sergeant-at-arms announced the presence of the managers of the impeachment on the part of the House of Representatives, and they were conducted to the seats assigned to them.

"Immediately afterwards the presence of the members of the House of Representatives was announced, and the members of the committee of the whole House, headed by Mr. E. B. Washburn, of Illinois, the chairman of that committee, and accompanied by the speaker and clerk of the House of Representatives, entered the Senate chamber and took the seats prepared for them."

The Senate is a school. The world's history is its text-book. The record of a single day's proceedings frequently shows a range of work as wide as Christendom. No man well made up can be there long, if he will but listen, without himself becoming wiser and better. His opportunities for usefulness multiply as the new days come to him; his intellectual horizon expands, his view broadens, and he grows stronger.

It is no disparagement to any one who ever was or is now a member of the United States Senate, to say that it is only the few that are really great. The work of the body has resulted from the combined labors of all its members; each is entitled to his full measure of credit. The least among them has had some part in making up the Senate's record. But in all these hundred years and more there have always been some strong men there, men of great intellectual stature, who were seen and heard above the rest, grand characters that stand out among their fellows like peaks in mountain ranges and that we see afar off as we see cliffs and promontories on the shore-line of the sea.

The House of Representatives, as the popular branch of the national legislature,

* The President's counsel were: Henry Stanbery, of Kentucky; B. R. Curtis, of Massachusetts; Thomas A. R. Nelson, of Tennessee; William M. Evarts, of New York; William S. Groesbeck, of Ohio; Jeremiah S. Black, of Pennsylvania.

is commonly regarded as being nearer the people and more responsive to the popular will than the Senate is. Be that as it may, the rules of the Lower House are and have been many years framed to restrict rather than to enlarge the freedom of speech. In the Senate there is no limit to debate except unanimous consent. The youngest member's objection prevents a vote if he desires to amend or to be heard on the main question. In a speech of great force delivered a few years ago in the Senate by Mr. Hoar, alluding to this subject, he said:

"The freedom of debate in the House of Representatives is gone. What, I sometimes think, is of more importance, the freedom of amendment, is gone also. . . . It is here only that the freedom of debate is secure. . . . Victories in arms are common to all nations. . . . But the greatest victories of constitutional liberty since the world began are those whose battle-ground has been the American Senate and whose champions have been the Senators, who, for a hundred years, while they have resisted the popular passions of the hour, have led, represented, guided, obeyed, and made effective the deliberate will of a free people." See FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

Senators, DIRECT ELECTION OF. See DIRECT ELECTION OF SENATORS.

Seneca Indians, the fifth nation of the IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY (*q. v.*). They called themselves "dwellers in the open country." Tradition says that at the formation of the great confederacy Hiawatha said to them, "You, Senecas, a people who live in the 'open country,' and possess much wisdom, shall be the fifth nation, because you understand better the art of raising corn and beans and making cabins." The Dutch called them Sinnekaas, which the English spelled Senecas, and they were denominated the Western Door of the Long House—the confederacy. They were divided into five clans—viz., the Turtle, Snipe, Hawk, Bear, and Wolf, and were represented in the great council or congress by seven sachems. There was a small family on the borders of the Niagara River, called Neuters, whose domain formed the western boundary of the Seneca territory; also the Erikes, or Eries, south of Lake Erie. On the east they joined the Senecas. By the conquest of the Hurons, most of the Neuters, the Eries, and Andastes (or Susquehannas) were incorporated with the Senecas.

The French Jesuits began a mission among them in 1657; and afterwards the Senecas permitted La Salle to erect a block-house on the site of Fort Niagara. They also allowed the French to build a fort on the same spot in 1712. The Senecas alone of the SIX NATIONS (*q. v.*) joined Pontiac in his conspiracy in 1763. They destroyed Venango, attacked Fort Niagara, and cut off an army train on that frontier. In the Revolutionary War they sided with the British, and their country was devastated by General Sullivan in 1779. After the war they made peace, by treaty, at Fort Stanwix (Fort Schuyler); and their land passed, by sale and cession, into the possession of the white people, excepting the reservations of Alleghany, Cattaraugus, and Tonawanda—66,000 acres. They were the friends of the Americans in the War of 1812, and furnished men for the armies. A part of them, settled on Stony Creek, in Canada, and at Sandusky, O., joined the hostile tribes in the West, but made peace in 1815. These removed to the Indian Territory on the Neosho, in 1831. Protestant missions have been in operation among them since the beginning of this century, and the Society of Friends has done much to aid and protect them. In 1909 there were 2,749 at the New York agency, and a considerable number among the Iroquois in Quebec, Canada.

Separatists. See CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH.

Sequoyah, tribal name of George Guess, a Cherokee half-breed; born about 1770; became widely known by his invention in 1826 of the Cherokee alphabet, which consists of eighty-five characters, and is used in printing and writing. He was also a skilful silversmith. He died in San Fernando, Mexico, in August, 1843.

Sergeant, JOHN, jurist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 5, 1779; graduated at Princeton College in 1795; admitted to the Philadelphia bar in 1799; appointed commissioner of bankruptcy by President Jefferson in 1801; served in the State legislature in 1808–10, and in Congress in 1815–23, 1827–29, and 1837–42; was active

in promoting the Missouri Compromise; was an envoy to the Panama congress in 1826; president of the Pennsylvania constitutional convention in 1830; and candidate for the Vice-Presidency of the United States on the ticket with Henry Clay in 1832. In 1841 he was offered and declined the mission to England. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 25, 1852.

Sergeant, THOMAS, jurist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 14, 1782; graduated at Princeton College in 1798; admitted to the bar in 1802; was a judge of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court in 1834–46. He won the reputation of being the only judge who did not have a single decision reversed during the time he sat on the Pennsylvania bench. His publications include *Treatise Upon the Law of Pennsylvania Relative to the Proceedings by Foreign Attachment; Report of Cases Adjudged in the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania* (with William Rawle); *Constitutional Law; Sketch of the National Judiciary Powers Exercised in the United States Prior to the Adoption of the Present Federal Constitution;* and *View of the Land Laws of Pennsylvania.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 8, 1860.

Sergeant-at-arms. An officer of the United States Senate whose duties are to serve processes, make arrests, and aid in preserving order. In the House of Representatives the same officer has the same duties, and, in addition, has charge of the pay accounts of the members.

Serra. See JUNIPERO.

Sessions of Congress. See CONGRESS, CONTINENTAL AND NATIONAL.

Seton, ELIZABETH ANN, founder of the Sisters of Charity in the United States; born in New York, Aug. 28, 1774. In 1809 she was enabled to open a semi-conventual establishment at Emmettsburg. The first charge of the sisters outside of their own convent was that of an orphan asylum in Philadelphia. She died in Emmettsburg, Md., Jan. 4, 1821.

Seton. ERNEST THOMPSON, author and artist; born in South Shields, England, Aug. 14, 1860; lived in the backwoods of Canada in 1866–70, and on the Western plains in 1882–87; studied art in Paris in 1890–96; became widely known as author, artist, illustrator, popular lecturer on wild-animal life, and chief of the Boy Scout movement in the United States.

Settlement, ACT OF, for the succession to the British throne, excluding Roman Catholics, was passed in 1689. This name is also given to the statute by which the crown, after the demise of William III. and Queen Anne, without issue, was limited to Sophia, electress of Hanover, granddaughter of James I., and her heirs, being Protestants, 1702. The Irish act of settlement, passed in 1662, was repealed in 1689.

Settlers and Defenders of America, ORDER OF. A new hereditary-patriotic order, incorporated in 1899, but whose organization seemingly has never been completed.

Seven-days' Fight. The popular name of a series of battles between the National and Confederate armies in McClellan's peninsular campaign. The scene was east of Richmond, in Chickahominy Swamp. The first action was at Oak Grove, June 25, 1862, and the series included engagements at Mechanicsville, Gaines's Mill, Savage's Station, Frazer's Farm, and Malvern Hill, the latter being fought July 1, See PENINSULAR CAMPAIGN.

Seven Pines, BATTLE OF. See FAIR OAKS, BATTLE OF.

Seven-thirties, the popular name for the United States Treasury notes issued during the Civil War—total issue $830,000,000—as they bore interest at the rate of 7.030 per cent. per annum.

Seven Years' War. See FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

Seventh-Day Baptists, a body of Christians who assumed their present denominational forms as "Sabbatarian Baptists" in England, during the English Reformation. Their distinctive doctrines were first preached by John the Baptist. Sabbath-keeping, as obedience to God's law, and baptism, as the symbol of a new life after repentance, are fundamental facts in the early history of Christianity. In these facts Seventh-day Baptists find the warrant for their denominational existence. On these points they claim to be identical with the New Testament Church. The churches in the United States were the result of emigration from England. Stephen Mumford, of London, came to Newport, R. I., in 1664. He united with

the Baptist Church, though a Sabbath-keeper. Others embraced the Sabbath, and the first Seventh-day Baptist Church in America was organized at Newport in 1671. A second branch was founded by Rev. Abel Noble, near Philadelphia, about 1700. A third was founded in Northern New Jersey by converts from the Piscataway Baptist Church in 1705. In 1910 the census reported 77 organizations, 71 church edifices, 8,381 communicants, 90 ministers, 5,117 Sunday-school scholars, and church property, valued at $292,250.

Sevier, JOHN, pioneer; born in Rockingham county, Va., Sept. 23, 1745; went to the Holston River, east Tennessee, with an exploring party, in 1769, and built Fort Watauga; was in the battle of Point Pleasant; settled in North Carolina; was a member of its legislature in 1777; fought the Indians on the frontiers; and was one of the leaders (as colonel) in the battle at KING'S MOUNTAIN (*q. v.*). He was afterwards attached to General Marion's command, and was a brigadier-general at the close of the war. Sevier was active among the secessionists of western North Carolina, who formed the independent State of FRANKLAND (*q. v.*), over which he was elected governor in 1784. When Tennessee was organized, in 1788, he was governor until 1801. He was again governor from 1803 to 1809, and in 1811 he was a member of Congress. In 1815 he accepted a mission to the Creek Indians, and died while in performance of it near Fort Decatur, Ga., Sept. 24, 1815. See TENNESSEE.

Sewall, ARTHUR, capitalist; born in Bath, Me., Nov. 25, 1835; received a public-school education; was apprenticed in his father's ship-building yards; and in 1854, with his brother Edward, assumed the management of his father's interests. In 1879 he became the head of the firm, and continued so until his death. Under his direction the ship-building industry of New England was extended beyond all former bounds. He was a delegate to the national Democratic conventions in 1880 and 1896; was an unsuccessful candidate for the United States Senate in 1893; member of the national Democratic committee in 1888–96; and in the latter year was named for the Vice-Presidency of the United States on the ticket with Mr. Bryan. He died in Small Point, Me., Sept. 5, 1900.

Sewall, HAROLD MARSH, diplomatist; born in Bath, Me., in 1860; graduated at Harvard College in 1882; was appointed consul-general to the Samoan Islands during the first administration of President Cleveland, but, disagreeing with the latter's policy, resigned. Later he participated under President Harrison in arranging the Berlin treaty of 1889, which gave to the United States, Great Britain, and Germany joint jurisdiction over Samoan affairs; was then reappointed consul-general. In 1897 he was made United States minister to Hawaii, and held that post till the annexation of the islands to the United States. He was a member of the Maine assembly in 1903–07, and the Senate in 1907–09. See HAWAII.

Sewall, JONATHAN, lawyer; born in Boston, Mass., Aug. 24, 1728; graduated at Harvard College in 1748, and in early life was the intimate associate and friend of John Adams. Like Adams, he was a school-teacher; became a lawyer in 1767; and was appointed attorney-general of Massachusetts. In 1769 he began a suit for the freedom of a negro slave, and was successful, two years before the settlement of the case of the negro Somerset, which Blackstone commended so highly and Cowper commemorated in poetry. He and Adams finally differed in politics, Sewall taking sides with the crown. When the Revolutionary War broke out, he was residing in the house, at Cambridge, which Washington afterwards occupied as his headquarters, for Sewall went to England, and was among the proscribed in Massachusetts in 1779. In 1788 he removed to St. John, N. B., where he was judge of the admiralty court until his death, Sept. 26, 1796.

Sewall, MAY WRIGHT, lecturer; born in Milwaukee, Wis., May 27, 1844; was graduated at Northwestern University in 1866; became principal of the Girls' Classical School in Indianapolis, founded by her husband, and a leader in the woman-suffrage and educational movements; author of *Historical Résumê of the World's Congress of Representative Women*, and many monographs on reform subjects.

Sewall, RUFUS KING, author; born in Edgecombe, Me., Jan. 22, 1814; graduated

at Bowdoin College in 1837, and at Bangor Theological Seminary in 1841; was admitted to the bar in Maine. He was author of *Ancient Dominion of Maine; Ancient Voyages to the Western Continent; Memoir of Joseph Sewall, D.D.;* etc. He died in Wiscasset, Me., April 17, 1903.

Sewall, SAMUEL, jurist; born in Bishopstoke, England, March 28, 1652; graduated at Harvard College in 1671; studied divinity; preached a while; came into the possession of great wealth by marrying the daughter of a Boston goldsmith; became an assistant in 1684, and was annually chosen a member of the council from 1692 until 1725. He was a judge from 1712 until 1718, when he became chief-justice of Massachusetts, resigning in 1728, in consequence of age and infirmities. Judge Sewall shared in the general belief in witches and witchcraft, and concurred in the condemnation of many of the accused persons, but afterwards publicly acknowledged his error. He seems to have been the first outspoken "abolitionist" in the United States, having written a tract against slavery, in which he gave it as his opinion that there would "be no progress in gospelling" until slavery should be abolished. He died in Boston, Mass., Jan. 1, 1730. See WITCHCRAFT.

Seward, FREDERICK WILLIAM, lawyer; born in Auburn, N. Y., July 8, 1830; graduated at Union College in 1849; assistant United States Secretary of State, 1861–69 and 1877–81. He died in Montrose, N. Y., April 25, 1915.

Seward, THEODORE FRELINGHUYSEN, musician; born in Florida, N. Y., Jan. 25, 1835; studied music; introduced the tonic sol-fa system of instruction in the United States in 1880; founded the Brotherhood of Christian Unity in 1891; and the Don't Worry circles in 1897–98; and wrote *A Plea for the Christian Year,* etc. He died in Orange, N. J., Aug. 30, 1902.

SEWARD, WILLIAM HENRY

Seward, WILLIAM HENRY, statesman; born in Florida, Orange co., N. Y., May 16, 1801; graduated at Union College in 1820; became a lawyer; began practice at Auburn in 1823; and soon acquired a high reputation, especially in criminal practice. He first appeared conspicuously in politics as president of a State convention of young men who favored the re-election of John Quincy Adams to the Presidency. In 1830–34 he was a member of the State Senate, and became a leader of the Whig party, opposed to the administration of Jackson. In 1838 and 1840 he was elected governor of New York; in 1842 resumed the practice of his profession, and gained an extensive business, chiefly in United States courts; and was United States Senator from 1849 till 1861, when he was called to the cabinet of President Lincoln as Secretary of State.

As early as March, 1861, when it was known that emissaries from the South had been sent abroad to seek recognition and aid for their cause, Mr. Seward addressed the American ministers in Europe, conjuring them to use all diligence to "prevent the designs of those who would invoke foreign intervention to embarrass and overthrow the republic." President Lincoln had appointed Charles Francis Adams minister to the British Court, and on April 10, 1861, Secretary Seward instructed him concerning the manner in which he should oppose the agents of the Confederates. He directed him to stand up manfully as the representative of his *whole* country, and that as a powerful

WILLIAM HENRY SEWARD.

nation, asking no favors of others. "You will, in no case," said Mr. Seward, "listen to any suggestions of compromise by this government, under foreign auspices, with its discontented citizens. If—as the President does not at all apprehend—you shall unhappily find her Majesty's government tolerating the application of the so-called Seceding States, or wavering about it, you will not leave them to suppose for a moment that they can grant that application and remain the friends of the United States. You may even assure them promptly, in that case, that if they determine to recognize they may at the same time prepare to enter into an alliance with the enemies of the republic. You, alone, will represent your country at London, and you will represent the whole of it there. When you are asked to divide that duty with others, diplomatic relations between the government of Great Britain and this government will be suspended, and will remain so until it shall be seen which of the two is most strongly intrenched in the confidence of the respective nations and of mankind." The high position taken in the name of his government in that letter of instruction was, doubtless, one of the most efficient causes, together with the friendly attitude afterwards assumed by Russia towards the United States, of the fortunate delay of Great Britain in the matter of recognizing the independence of the Southern Confederacy.

As Secretary of State he conducted, with great wisdom and sagacity, the foreign affairs of the government, through all the critical period of the Civil War, and continued in President Johnson's cabinet, filling the same office, until 1869. He was a conspicuous opposer of slavery for many years, in and out of Congress. He opposed the compromise acts of 1850, the Kansas-Nebraska bill of 1854, and was one of the founders of the Republican party. The two most important subjects of his diplomacy during the Civil War were the liberation of Mason and Slidell and the French invasion of Mexico.

According to a proclamation, May 2, 1865, of President Johnson, there was "evidence in the bureau of military justice that there had been a conspiracy formed by Jefferson Davis, Jacob Thompson, Clement C. Clay, Beverly Tucker, George N. Saunders, William C. Cleary, and other rebels and traitors, against the government of the United States, harbored in Canada," to assassinate the President and the Secretary of State. Circumstances seemed to warrant a suspicion that the same fate was intended for other officers of the government, also for General Grant and leading Republicans; hoping, in some way, that the Confederate leaders, in the confusion of the trying moment, might seize the reins of the national government. On the evening when President Lincoln was shot (April 14, 1865), Lewis Payne Powell, a Confederate soldier of Florida, went to the house of Secretary Seward, who was then severely ill, with the pretence that he was a messenger from the minister's physician. Refused admission by the porter, he rushed in, and up two flights of stairs, to Mr. Seward's chamber, at the door of which he was met by his son, Frederick Seward, who resisted him. The assassin felled the younger Seward to the floor with the handle of a pistol, fracturing his skull and making him insensible. The Secretary's daughter was attracted to the room door, when the ruffian rushed past her, sprang upon Mr. Seward's bed, and inflicted three severe wounds with a dagger upon his neck and face. Mr. Robinson, an invalid soldier attending as nurse, seized the assassin, and while they were struggling Miss Seward shouted murder from the open window, and the porter cried for help from the street. Finding his position perilous, the miscreant escaped from Robinson, ran down-stairs, and sped away on a horse he had in readiness. Other persons were accused of complicity with Booth and Lewis Payne Powell in their murderous raid upon men high in office. The assassin was soon arrested; also suspected accomplices of Booth. Three of these (with Powell) were found guilty and hanged. Their names were David E. Herrold, George A. Atzerott, and Mary E. Surratt. The house of the latter was proved to have been a place of resort for Booth and his accomplices. Three others were sentenced to imprisonment, at hard labor, for life, and one for six months. President Johnson offered $100,000 reward for the arrest

of Jefferson Davis; $25,000 apiece for the arrest of Jacob Thompson, C. C. Clay, G. N. Saunders, and Beverly Tucker; and $10,000 for the arrest of W. C. Cleary.

Mr. Seward never recovered fully from the shock of the accident and the assassin's attack. Retiring from public life in March, 1869, he made an extended tour through California and Oregon to Alaska, and in August, 1870, he set out upon a tour around the world, returning to Auburn in October, 1871. He had been everywhere received with marks of the highest consideration. Mr. Seward's *Works* (4 vols.), contained his speeches in legislative debates, eulogies in the Senate of several of his colleagues, occasional addresses, orations, etc. He died in Auburn, N. Y., Oct. 10, 1872. For Mr. Seward's speech on *The Crime Against Kansas*, see KANSAS; and for that on *Protest Against Slavery*, see NEBRASKA.

A Character Appreciation.—The following review of the development of the career of the great American foreign secretary, by Richard Grant White, reveals the personality of the statesman in a clear and discriminating light:

It is much to be regretted that Mr. Seward's eminently noble and useful life was ended before he had finished the *Autobiography* which, at the request of his family, he had begun. For, from what he had written of it before his death, and from the revelations of his letters written to his family and his nearest personal friends, we may infer with certainty that he would have dealt frankly with the world, and would have told us all that the most candid man could be expected to tell of his purposes, his methods, his feelings, and even of his thoughts. But we may be sure that if Mr. Seward had completed his record of his life, we should have known him thoroughly. Perhaps we do so now, so far as his nature and his motives are concerned. For this autobiography and these letters reveal him to us as a man not only of remarkable singleness of purpose, but of a rare candor and simplicity of soul. He did wear his heart upon his sleeve when daws were not by to peck it. To those whom he loved and trusted and who loved and trusted him he was singularly open-hearted. Such is not the general opinion in regard to him, but such will almost surely be the verdict of those who read the imperfect record of his life which is now laid before the world. And, moreover, it is manifest that no small part of his influence over men and upon public affairs was due, on the one hand, to his candor in regard to himself, and on the other, to his charity towards others. For more than thirty years of his life Mr. Seward was a power in the land, active, formative, impelling. To no other one man of his generation is due so much of the present greatness and prosperity of the United States. That greatness and that prosperity have been achieved in the direct lines which he marked out and in large measure by the very means which he indicated. He was at one time, in the earliest years of his public life, almost in a minority of one. His career was an unceasing struggle. He did battle daily. He had hosts of bitter political enemies; he was subjected to constant misapprehension and misconstruction, and he suffered all his life from personal misrepresentation and abuse. But his experience of the latter was invariably from the hands of strangers. Of those who were brought into personal contact with him, even as opponents, he made not personal enemies, but often personal friends. This was the result of his perfect candor, his good faith, and the kindliness of his nature. And yet it was his fate to be regarded during a great part of his life as a scheming demagogue, a man of bitter soul, unsparing enmity, and unscrupulous ambition; how unjustly we shall see by glancing over the traces of his career.

Early in his *Autobiography* Mr. Seward records that he had often reflected that, whatever care and diligence we exercise, our fortunes in life are beyond our control. Of the truth of this reflection no reasonable man of any experience of the world will entertain a moment's doubt. Whatever a man's ability or inclinations may be, circumstances, of which opportunity and necessity are the most important, determine his career. Mr. Seward's reflection was, indeed, brought to his mind by the remembrance that his course of life was not that which he had marked out for himself. He tells us that until late in life judicial preferment was the aim of his

ambition. He meant to be a lawyer, and he wished to be a judge. His early bias in this direction was caused by his observation of the deference paid to his father as a justice of the peace. This, however, was a mere boyish fancy, the impulse of which would not long have acted even upon the youthful aspirations of such a man as he, had it not accorded with the great motive force of his nature. This was a love of justice; not of that kind of justice which warrants the apothegm *summum jus summa injuria*, but that which consists in doing essential right to all men. It was for this that he longed for judicial power and place—that he might defend the right, protect the weak, and give restoration to the injured. But although his mind was in a certain sense judicial—judicial in its freedom from prejudice and from personal bias, even the bias of sympathy, which, however strongly felt, seems never to have blinded him to the perception, not only of essential right and wrong, but of what on the widest view of every case seemed to be the best and most prudent course to be taken—he was not juridical. He had too little deference for precedent to have become a good presiding officer in a court of record, at least without doing violence to his nature. He would have fretted under the legal restraints of the bench. His place in the attainment of justice was that of an advocate, the earnest and implacable, yet charitable foe of wrong; for his charity was as great as his love of justice. He could not sit quietly and see wrong done, even under the forms of law, if it were done to others; but he could forgive the wrong-doer, and even seek and suggest the excuses that would palliate his wrong-doing. He was not a good hater. Such being his nature, and circumstances having very early in life drawn, almost forced, him into the field of politics, he became a statesman of large and liberal views, a leader in the great progressive movement of his age and country towards the elevation of the whole people, without distinction of condition, nativity, race, or prescriptive right of whatever kind, to all the benefits conferred by absolute freedom of personal action within the law, by absolute equality before the law, and by such education as should fit each man to hold and use these rights and advantages with benefit to himself and to the whole community.

It is a remarkable fact in regard to our political men that so many of the more distinguished among them have been not only lawyers, but lawyers of rural birth and education. For whatever reason, our large cities have produced very few of the men who have exercised any great influence upon our public affairs. Almost all of these have come, if not from the agricultural districts, from the small towns which are the intellectual centres of such districts. Mr. Seward was not an exception to this general rule. He was born in a little village of not more than a dozen dwellings, almost in the centre of the State of New York, and he was first heard of as a young lawyer in Auburn; and in Auburn, when his public duties did not call him to Albany or to Washington, or when he was not travelling to satisfy that insatiable craving to study the world, physical as well as human, which never ceased but with his life, he lived as a practising lawyer until he became too important a personage to appear as attorney and counsel unless for a nation or an oppressed people.

He completed his academic studies at Union College under Dr. Nott, whose liberal "broad-church" management of that institution made it such a refuge of young fellows driven out from other colleges by their stricter discipline, that it received and long retained the name in college circles of "Botany Bay." The attempt of Dr. Nott to control undergraduates only through the influence of their own self-respect had, we may be sure, the young Seward's warmest sympathy. It must have commended itself wholly and warmly to a nature like his, and he records his memory of the manliness of spirit developed under the system of Dr. Nott. But he does not speak so highly of the system of instruction, which consisted chiefly in a cultivation of the memory under which much was forgotten as soon as learned. He justly says that this system was not peculiar to Union, and then makes another remark significant of his view of the policy in all respects the wisest for America. "The error," he says, appears to be "incidental to our system

of education, which sacrifices a full and complete training of the individual to the important object of affording the utmost possible education to the largest number of citizens." Whether the education possible under this system is the best that could be given even with such an end in view may be questioned; but that that end commended itself to his judgment in his later as well as in his earlier years there can be no doubt whatever. These were the ruling motives of his life, the fundamental principles of his political action—war upon oppression in whatever form, and the diffusion of knowledge among the whole people; all else was incidental to these or developed from them.

This view of education is very "American"; and the sum of Mr. Seward's opinions and feelings and mental traits made him a notably "American" man. Capable of a very broad view of politics, as well as of men and things, he habitually saw them with the eye of a man who had the welfare of his country close at heart, and to whom the good, the happiness, the hopes and wishes, and even the peculiarities, of the people around him were of the first importance. He was serenely indifferent to foreign criticism. It did not trouble him as it did others less self-contained and more sensitive; although he studied it to learn from it, much however, it may be suspected, as if he had the leaden-eyed *fas est ab hoste doceri* in mind. And indeed foreign criticisms, particularly in politics and diplomacy, are rarely friendly. It was no mere sense of duty or of becomingness that placed Mr. Seward thus always on the "American" side of every question, and tinged all his opinions with "Americanism." He had a genuine and lively sympathy with his countrymen of the "average" class; and early in life he formed the opinion that in the long run they might be safely trusted with all political power. He also was not long in discovering that the prosperity of the United States and their progress to the power and station which they have since attained were possible by the wise use of their peculiar advantages, physical, political, and social, and a development of their peculiar traits, to the comparative disregard of that which they had in common with the people of older political organizations in more thickly settled countries and on soil longer reclaimed. Hence his "Americanism" was not "native Americanism." The party which was founded upon that one idea was a genuine outgrowth of true patriotic feeling. It was an honest protest, put into action against the demagogism that used the ignorant emigrant, and was in turn used by him, for selfish purposes, the end of the bargain being political corruption and a low tone of social morals. It sought to make Tweeds and Fernando Woods impossible. Had it obtained control of the government long enough to have effected its purpose, it would have accomplished a certain good; and perhaps Tweed might have been impossible. But its patriotism was narrow. It would probably have impaired the material prosperity of the country, and checked the development of its resources; and it certainly would have introduced distinction of class, and have given us a body of citizens and laboring men of foreign birth who would have found themselves disfranchised, without a voice in a government professing to rest upon the principle of equal political and civil rights in all men. Those who believe that full citizenship and a voice in the government should be a privilege, and not the matter-of-course possession of every human being of legal age who is not in a prison or a mad-house, may still mourn the failure of "native Americanism"; but Mr. Seward was not of their number. His "Americanism" welcomed the immigrant, and sought to "Americanize" him as soon as possible, and as thoroughly as possible. His attitude upon this question subjected him to the charge of demagogism on the part of many honest people, some of whom, at least, changed their opinion both of his policy and his good faith in the light of the events of subsequent years. He was thought to be bidding for the votes of citizens of foreign birth. Those who imputed this motive to him ought at least to have remembered what we may be sure he knew well and never forgot, that the bulk of our immigrant citizens was always to be found acting with the political party to which he during his whole life was in

opposition. His policy upon this question was indicated clearly, unmistakably, in his first message as governor of New York in 1839, long before the "Know-nothing" party was thought of, and in the treatment of a subject entirely aloof from the political notion upon which that party was founded. Discussing the subject of railways and canals to connect the great seaport of the country with the West through the great State of which, at the age of thirty-eight years, he found himself the first magistrate, he put forth views which his son and biographer has thus summarized:

"America is a land of latent, unappropriated wealth; the minerals under its soils are not more truly wealth hidden and unused than are its vast capabilities and resources, material, political, social, and moral. Two streams that come from the Old World, in obedience to great natural laws, are pouring into it daily fresh, invigorating energies. One of these streams is the surplus capital of Europe. The other is the surplus labor of the world. Both steadily increase in volume and velocity. It is idle to try to roll back their tide. It is wise to accept them and to use them. Instead of delaying about one great line of communication from the sea to the lakes, rather open three—through the centre of the State, through its northern counties, and through its southern ones. Instead of vainly seeking to exclude the immigrant, rather welcome him to our ports, speed him on his Western way, share with him our political and religious freedom, tolerate his churches, establish schools for his children, and so assimilate his principles, his habits, manners, and opinions, to our own. In a word, open as far as possible to all men of whatever race all paths for the improvement of their condition, as well as for their mental and moral culture."

This was all; but it was enough. He lived long enough to see the logic of events rapidly prove and illustrate the wisdom of his policy, and to know that no considerable number of his fellow-citizens, however purely "American" in birth and feeling, would think of adopting the "Know-nothing" theory of exclusion sooner than they would have returned to the early New England practice of making church-membership a condition of full citizenship.

Mr. Seward's sagacity—and he was notably sagacious—and his habit of looking at all questions of state from a practical point of view, led him, no less than his hatred of oppression and his love of his fellow-men, however humble, to take a view of slavery which was in entire accordance with his views upon that of immigration. He not only detested slavery as a cruel wrong to the negro, but he saw in it a permanent element of political weakness, an active cause of social demoralization, and the means of a fictitious prosperity which was sure to end in poverty and ruin. The negroes were here, and here they must remain. Would we or would we not, they were a part of our social fabric; for they were men. Deprived of the rights of men, under a government professing to be founded upon the inalienable rights of man, they were an element constantly working towards destruction. His dogma of the "irrepressible conflict" between freedom and slavery which brought down upon him such fierce denunciation, in the free States hardly less than in the slave, was in fact only the foundation of a fundamental moral truth exemplified and illustrated in all history, a truth which has its foundations in man's reason and man's nature. He saw it, and with that boldness which, no less than his candor, was a part of his own nature, he uttered it in a happy phrase that became a watchword and a battle-cry in one of the grandest and most terrible conflicts of opinion and material force that the world has ever beheld.

Although he may have been silent as to his opinions in regard to future events, and as to the modes of action he should advise, he never concealed his feeling towards slavery or his purpose to withstand its extension at all hazards. He never curried favor with the slave-holders at Washington, or bid for slave-holding favor or slave-holding votes in any way. On the contrary, notwithstanding his respect for the law, and his determination to keep within the bounds of the Constitution, he added to his dogma of the "irrepressible conflict" that of the "higher law"—a higher law, that is, than the Con-

stitution of the United States. Truly, if a trumpet were ever blown with a not uncertain sound, it was that with which he from time to time roused up and heartened the ever-increasing band which was slowly but surely moving upon the last stronghold of slavery. Neither friend nor foe could mistake his meaning. There might have been reasonable objection, if not to the doctrine of a "higher law," at least that the proclamation of such a law did not become the lips of a Senator of the United States, whose very senatorial office and functions were the creation of the Constitution; it might have been said that before proclaiming such a law he should have laid aside his senatorship, because, however it might be with a private man, for a Senator of the United States there could be no higher law than the Constitution of the United States; but, however just this criticism, there could have been no misunderstanding by the slave-holders of the fellness of his purpose. And there was none. They recognized in him their most dreadful enemy. But with their enmity—we can hardly say their hatred—there was mingled, if not a feeling of awe, a very profound respect. At the ordinary agitators, however skilful and inflammatory, they could rave and storm, and threaten them with pistol and bowie-knife, and, when they caught them, coat them with tar and feathers; but this quiet, clear-headed, law-abiding man, respecting himself, always respecting others, never giving personal offence to others and himself refusing to be offended—what could be done with him? Nothing. With all his self-respect and his consciousness of his own power, he had no offensive egotism; he gave no provocation to personal enmity by personal bitterness; and the fate that fell upon Charles Sumner he escaped. Even to the end he remained upon terms of personal intercourse with the leading representatives of slavery at Washington. For not only did he refrain himself from giving them ground of personal offence, but he showed them unmistakably that he would not be provoked into personal retort by personality, but he would keep himself to the question in the abstract. It is told of him—but not in the book before us, which brings his life down only to the year 1846—that one day a Southern Senator, irritated beyond endurance at Seward's calm but relentless manner of treating a question connected with slavery, rose and poured out upon him a sudden volley of bitter personal vituperation. When the Southerner had taken his seat, Seward rose, but did not reply; he walked quietly and firmly towards his assailant. The Senate was mute with expectation, almost with apprehension. Was Seward at last driven from his self-possession? Was there to be a personal scene, a personal insult, perhaps a personal conflict, in the chamber? When Seward reached his still excited opponent, who looked at him in wonder and uncertainty, he extended his hand towards the other's desk, upon which lay a small box, and blandly said, "Senator, will you give me a pinch of snuff?" And so he snuffed the man and his bitter speech out into utter darkness. What could be done with a man who feared no one, hated no one, who broke no laws, even those of social courtesy, and who, with a calm consciousness of personal dignity, would not be offended, and who yet was steadily although slowly making arrangements for your utter political extinguishment, the removal of your social candle-stick out of its place forever! Truly a most perplexing and impracticable person. The enemies of such men have only the alternative of overcoming them by argument or some more peaceful contrivance, or killing them. Now in Mr. Seward's case the slave-holders could not do the first, and the last would not on the whole have been a very serviceable way of getting rid of him, such are the prejudices of modern society.

The irrepressible conflict went on; the higher law asserted itself; the great crisis was at last no longer to be put off by whatever skill or whatever endurance. And when it came, he to whom all eyes had been turned for years as the man who in such a contingency was to be at the head of affairs was put aside in favor of one almost unknown, and one altogether untrained for the duties of such a place in such an emergency. It is not too much to say that the whole civilized world was surprised and dissatisfied when the Republican convention of 1860 did not nominate Mr. Seward to the Presidency. And

this failure to meet the expectations of the world, foes as well as friends, was due entirely to one of those manifestations of personal pique, which have so often had an influence upon the fate of nations. It was by the hands of a former friend and for many years a fast ally, that Mr. Seward saw the crown of his life petulantly snatched from him and given to—no matter whom, if not to him—but to one who had done nothing to merit it, and who was so unknown to the majority of his countrymen that his identity had to be explained to them. When Horace Greeley announced to his former political partners that "the firm of Seward, Weed, and Greeley was dissolved," Mr. Weed doubtless saw that he meant mischief; Mr. Seward probably did not give that view of the matter much thought. And evidently he, with all his sagacity, had been as much surprised as any one when he found that Horace Greeley, by profession philanthropist and journalist, hungered after office. With much undisciplined mental force, with a power of direct utterance on paper which compelled attention, with many vague, inchoate, shifting views as to social and political science, and a genuine hatred of slavery, Horace Greeley was probably the most unfit man for official life that could be found in his party; and yet he wanted to be a Senator, longed to be a cabinet minister, and pined to be President. Probably no two men knew his unfitness for any executive or legislative position so well as Mr. Seward and Mr. Weed, except one other, Charles A. Dana, who had been managing editor of the *Tribune* during the years while it was becoming a power in the land; and his political partners did not encourage him in his aspirations. But at last he would be put off no longer, and he broke with them in a huff. To the workings of his personal spleen was due the defection from Mr. Seward at Chicago which made his nomination impossible.

Here he was at the end of his career, and that which the world looked upon as his, according to all the laws of fitness and desert, was given to another, and to one of whom the world knew nothing. That the disappointment was great for him as well as for others cannot be doubted; it must have carried with it a sense of wrong. But it bred no bitterness in Seward's soul. Erelong it was known that he had accepted the post of Secretary of State under his obscure and uncultured rival, whose success was the most open political affront that could have been offered to him. For the first time he accepted an office by executive appointment. Only once before, early in his career—in fact, early in his life, so long before as 1828—he had sought the appointment of surrogate; and although he did not receive it, he found, in the seeking of it, that office-holding or office-seeking would not comport with his manner of political thought and action. "I saw at once," he says, "how much the desire or the holding of such a place tended to compromise my personal independence, and I resolved, thenceforth, upon no considerations other than the safety of the State ever to seek or accept a trust conferred by executive authority. That case occurred later, when I, with extreme reluctance, and from convictions of public duty, took the office of Secretary of State at the beginning of the Civil War, and filled it until the restoration of peace." Of the value of his counsels, his sagacity, and his long experience, to the raw and entirely untrained and inexperienced man who found himself in the chair in which he had himself expected to see Mr. Seward, the estimate can hardly be too high, nor of their value to the nation.

Our foreign relations became perplexing and full of danger to a degree before unimaginable; and with them was complicated the management of public opinion at home. For this task Mr. Seward had just the union of political sagacity and political experience, of directness in purpose and state-craft in method, of tact, of imperturbability, of untiring good-nature, that was required. His despatches did not quite please the diplomatists or the political censors of European nations, and particularly those of Great Britain. And one reason of this was that they were written, and necessarily written, with one eye at home and the other abroad. They effected their purpose. They maintained the dignity of the country even in its darkest, most distracted hour; and, supported and enforced by the tact and skill of Mr. Adams, they carried us safely

through our perils from those who loved us not abroad, and put the government in no peril at home. The British political censors never tired of accusing Mr. Seward of a sort of bad faith in the *Trent* affair. According to them he should have hastened to give up the Confederate commissioners before they had been asked for. But Mr. Seward knew that, in the state of feeling among his countrymen against the British government and governing classes, to do that would have put Mr. Lincoln's government in immediate peril. He knew from the beginning, we may be sure, that the commissioners would be given up; but he postponed their surrender until the last moment, that excitement might have time to subside and that cool reason might be heard; and when he gave them up, although he addressed the British minister, he used all the ingenuity in his power to work out a series of reasons that would satisfy, not the British government, but his own countrymen, of the necessity and rightfulness of compliance with the demands of a government which was then hated at the North even more than that of Jefferson Davis. The whole record of Mr. Seward's life shows him to have been eminently a magnanimous and faithful man, and never was his magnanimity or his faithfulness to the right and to his country put to severer test than when he was called upon to accept the position of Secretary of State under Mr. Lincoln.

Sewell, William Joyce, statesman; born in Castlebar, Ireland, Dec. 6, 1835; removed to the United States in 1846; served throughout the Civil War, reaching the grade of major-general; wounded at Chancellorsville and at Gettysburg; State senator, 1872–81; United States Senator from New Jersey, 1882–88 and 1895, till his death at Camden, N. J., Dec. 27, 1901.

Sewell's Point, a locality at the mouth of the Elizabeth River, Virginia, where the Confederates erected a redoubt, with three heavy rifled cannon, in the middle of May, 1861, for the purpose of sweeping Hampton Roads. The battery was masked by a sand-hill, but it was discovered by Capt. Henry Eagle, of the national armed schooner *Star,* who sent several shots among the workmen on the Point on May 19. The fire was returned; five shots struck the *Star,* and she was compelled to withdraw. That night about 2,000 Confederate troops were sent down to the Point from Norfolk, and these were there on the morning of the 20th, when the *Freeborn,* Captain Ward, opened her guns upon them. The battery was soon silenced and the Confederates driven away. This was the first offensive operation against the Confederates in the Civil War.

Seymour, Horatio, statesman; born in Pompey Hill, N. Y., May 31, 1810; received an academic and partially military education, and fitted himself for the profession of law, but never practised it, having inherited an ample estate. In early life he engaged in politics; served six years (1833–39) on the staff of Governor Marcy; was elected to the State assembly in 1841; held the place by re-election four years, and was chosen speaker in 1845. He was also mayor of Utica in 1842. In 1852 and 1862 he was chosen governor of New York. He was active in raising troops for the Federal army, and for that service received the personal thanks of President Lincoln; and in 1868 was the Democratic candidate for the Presidency. In 1869 he declined a senatorship and the nomination for governor. He died in Utica, N. Y., Feb. 12, 1886.

Seymour, Moses, military officer; born in Hartford, Conn., July 23, 1742; settled in Litchfield, Conn., in early life. When the Revolutionary War began he was commissioned captain in the 5th Cavalry, which repelled Tryon's invasion in 1777, and participated in the campaign which led to the surrender of Burgoyne. He was retired in 1783 with the rank of major; was town-clerk of Litchfield for thirty-seven years; and a member of the legislature in 1795–1811. He died in Litchfield, Conn., Sept. 17, 1826.

Seymour, Thomas Hart, diplomatist; born in Hartford, Conn., in 1808; educaetd at the Partridge Military School, Middletown, Conn.; practised law in Hartford, Conn.; was editor of *The Jeffersonian* in 1837; judge of probate; and a member of Congress in 1843–45. He entered the Mexican War as major of the 9th Regiment; was promoted lieutenant-colonel, Aug. 12, 1847; and brevetted colonel, Sept. 13, 1847, for services at

Chapultepec; was governor of Connecticut in 1850–53; and minister to Russia in 1853–57. He died in Hartford, Conn., Sept. 3, 1868.

Seymour, TRUMAN, military officer; born in Burlington, Vt., Sept. 24, 1824; graduated at West Point in 1846; served in the war against Mexico, and also in the Florida war (1856–58); and became captain of artillery in 1860. He was in Fort Sumter during its siege in 1861; joined the Army of the Potomac in March, 1862; and was made chief of artillery of McCall's division. Late in April of that year he was made brigadier-general, and commanded a brigade in the Peninsular campaign. He led a brigade in the battles at Groveton, South Mountain, and Antietam, and commanded a division in the assault on Fort Wagner, where he was severely wounded (July 18, 1863). In February, 1864, he commanded an expedition to Florida, and fought a battle at Olustee. He was in the Richmond campaign from December, 1864, to the surrender of Lee at Appomattox, and was brevetted major-general, United States army, "for services during the Rebellion." He was retired in 1876. He died in Florence, Italy, Oct. 30, 1891.

Shackamaxon (Pa.), where William Penn made his famous treaty with the Indians in 1682.

Shaffner, TALIAFERRO PRESTON, inventor; born in Smithfield, Va., in 1818; was admitted to the bar, but applied himself chiefly to invention; was associated with Professor Morse in the introduction of the telegraph; designed several methods of blasting with high explosives. He was the author of *Telegraph Companion: Devoted to the Science and Art of the Morse American Telegraph; The Telegraph Manual; The Secession War in America; History of America;* and *Odd-Fellowship.* He died in Troy, N. Y., Dec. 11, 1881.

Shafter, WILLIAM RUFUS, military officer; born in Kalamazoo county, Mich., Oct. 16, 1835; received a common school education; entered the National army as first lieutenant in the 7th Michigan Infantry, Aug. 22, 1861; became major of the 19th Michigan Infantry, Sept. 5, 1862; was promoted lieutenant-colonel, June 5, 1863; colonel of the 17th United States Colored Infantry, April 19, 1864; and was brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers, March 13, 1865. He was commissioned lieutenant-colonel in the regular army in January, 1867, and was promoted brigadier-general in May, 1897. When the American-Spanish War began he was appointed major-general of volunteers and ordered to Tampa, Fla., to command the invading

WILLIAM RUFUS SHAFTER.

army of Cuba. He conducted the military operations which ended in the surrender of Santiago de Cuba in July, 1898. Shafter was selected to lead the American troops in Cuba, according to General Corbin, "on account of his rank and conceded ability, his vigor and good judgment. He is one of the men in the army who has been able to do what he was ordered to do; not a man to find out how things can not be done." On his return to the United States he was temporarily in command of the Military Department of the East, from which he was transferred to the Department of the Pacific in December, 1898, and on Oct. 16, 1899, he was retired, on reaching the age limit. He died near Bakersfield, Cal., Nov. 12, 1906. See EL CANEY; SAN JUAN HILL; SPAIN, WAR WITH.

Shaftesbury, EARL OF (ANTHONY ASHLEY COOPER), statesman; born in Wimborne, Dorsetshire, England, July 22, 1621; represented Tewkesbury in the Short Parliament in 1640; first supported Charles I. in the civil war, but in 1644 joined the Parliament troops, acted with vigor, served in Cromwell's Parliaments,

and was a leader of the opposition to Cromwell's measures. He was one of the commissioners who went to Breda to invite Charles II. to come to England. In 1661 he was created Baron Ashley, and was one of the commission for the trial of the regicides, whom he zealously prosecuted. Charles had granted to him and several other favorites the vast domain of Carolina (1663), and he was employed with Locke in framing a scheme of government for it. He was created Earl of Shaftesbury in 1672, and made lord-chancellor, for which he was unfitted. Opposing the government, the King dismissed him (1673). Accused of treason, he fled to Amsterdam, Holland, in 1682, where he died, June 22, 1683.

Shakers, an English sect, now chiefly found in the United States, arose in the time of Charles I., and derived its name from voluntary convulsions. It soon disappeared, but was revived by James Wardley in 1747, and more successfully by Ann Lee (or Standless), expelled Quakers, about 1757. The sect emigrated to America, May, 1772, and settled near Albany, N. Y., 1774. They have several communities in the United States; they hold all goods in common, live uprightly, and are noted for frugality, industry, integrity, and thrift. They denounce marriage as sinful, regard celibacy as holy, oppose war, disown baptism and the Lord's Supper, and use a sort of dancing as part of worship. According to the special report of the Bureau of the Census on *Religious Bodies* (1910), there were fifteen organizations in the United States, chiefly in New England and New York, having a total of 516 members and church property valued at $17,100. The community at New Lebanon, N. Y., was the most prominent.

Shaler, Alexander, military officer; born in Haddam, Conn., March 19, 1827; was major of the famous New York 7th Regiment before the breaking out of the Civil War, and became lieutenant-colonel of the 65th New York Volunteers in June, 1861. He served in the Peninsular campaign, and under Pope in Virginia and McClellan in Maryland as colonel. In May, 1863, he was promoted brigadier-general, and commanded a brigade in the battle of Fredericksburg. In the battle of the Wilderness he was taken prisoner, and was confined at Charleston, S. C. Exchanged in August (1864), he afterwards commanded a division in Arkansas (January, 1865). He was brevetted a major-general of volunteers in 1865. In 1867–68 he was major-general of the 1st Division N. G. S. N. Y.; in 1867–73 connected with the fire department of New York City; and in 1874–75 reorganized the fire department of Chicago. He was given a Congressional medal of honor in 1893 for distinguished gallantry in the battle of Fredericksburg. He died in New York City, Dec. 27, 1911.

Shaler, Nathaniel Southgate, geologist; born in Newport, Ky., Feb. 22, 1841; graduated at Laurence Scientific School in 1862; served in the national army during the Civil War as artillery officer for two years; instructor of zoology and geology in Laurence Scientific School in 1868–72; professor of paleontology in 1868–87; he was also director of the Kentucky geological survey (1873–80); in charge of the Atlantic coast survey in 1884; and became professor of geology in Harvard in 1887. He was author of *A First Book in Geology; Kentucky, a Pioneer Commonwealth; The Nature of Intellectual Property; Fossil Brachiopods of the Ohio Valley,* etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., April 10, 1906.

Shanks, William Franklin Gore, journalist; born in Shelbyville, Ky., April 20, 1837; was war corespondent for the New York *Herald* during the Civil War; managing editor of *Harper's Weekly* in 1867–69; city editor of the New York *Tribune* in 1871–80. He founded and became editor of *The Daily and Weekly Bond Buyer* in 1891. He was author of *Personal Recollections of Distinguished Generals;* an index to 40 volumes of *Harper's Magazine,* etc. In more recent years he carried on a newspaper syndicate in New York City. He died in Bermuda, Feb. 22, 1905.

Shannon, Wilson, diplomatist; born in Belmont county, O., Feb. 24, 1802; graduated at Athens College and became a lawyer; was governor of Ohio in 1838–40 and 1842–44; minister to Mexico in 1844; member of Congress in 1853–55; governor of Kansas Territory in 1855–56; favored slavery, but was very cautious, and in

1855 succeeded in settling the Wakarusha War (see KANSAS). He died in Lawrence, Kan., Aug. 31, 1877.

Sharpsburg. See ANTIETAM, BATTLE OF.

Sharswood, GEORGE, jurist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 7, 1810; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1828; admitted to the bar in 1831; member of the Pennsylvania legislature in 1837–38 and 1842–43; appointed judge of the district court of Philadelphia in 1845; president of that court in 1848–67; was then chosen a justice of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court; and was chief-justice in 1878–82. He became widely known through his book entitled *Sharswood's Blackstone's Commentaries;* was author of several other books on law, and editor of many text-writers. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 28, 1883.

Shaubena, OTTAWA, Indian chief; born near Maumee River, O., about 1775; accompanied TECUMSEH and SAUGANASH (*qq. v.*) in 1810 to the Indian tribes living in the present States of Illinois and Wisconsin in order to incite them against the white settlers. After the death of Tecumseh he and Sauganash withdrew their allegiance from the British and submitted to the United States. He died near Morris, Ill., July 27, 1859.

Shaw, ALBERT, journalist; born in Shandon, O., July 23, 1857; graduated at Iowa College, Grinnell, Ia., in 1879; studied abroad in 1888–89. Returning to the United States, he established and became editor of the *American Monthly Review of Reviews* in 1890. He is the author of *A Chapter in the History of Communism; Local Government in Illinois; Cooperation in the Northwest; Our War in Two Hemispheres;* several works on *Municipal Government;* etc.; editor of *The National Revenues; The Business Career; Political Problems of American Development,* etc.

Shaw, HENRY WHEELER (pen-name JOSH BILLINGS), humorist; born in Lanesboro, Mass., April 21, 1818. His publications include *Josh Billings on Ice; Josh Billings's Complete Works; Josh Billings's Spice-Box;* and an annual comic almanac. He died in Monterey, Cal., Oct. 14, 1885.

Shaw, JOHN, naval officer; born in Mount Mellick, Ireland, in 1773; came to the United States in 1790, and settled in Philadelphia; joined the navy as lieutenant in 1798; was placed in command of the *Enterprise* in December, 1799, and with that vessel in an eight months' cruise captured eight French privateers and retook eleven American prizes. His greatest fight was with the *Flambeau,* of fourteen guns and 100 men, which he defeated in a little more than an hour. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 17, 1823.

Shaw, LEMUEL, jurist; born in Barnstable, Mass., Jan. 9, 1781; graduated at Harvard College in 1800; became editor of the Boston *Gazette;* admitted to the bar in New Hampshire in 1804; was a member of the State legislature in 1811–16 and 1819; of the State senate in 1821–22 and 1828–29; and chief-justice of the Massachusetts Supreme Court in 1830–60. He died in Boston, Mass., March 30, 1861.

Shaw, LESLIE MORTIER, statesman; born in Morristown, Vt., Nov. 2, 1848; graduated at Cornell College, Iowa, in 1874, and at Iowa Law College in 1876; governor of Iowa in 1898–1902; Secretary of the Treasury in 1902–07; engaged in banking in Philadelphia, Pa., from 1909.

Shaw, THOMPSON DARRAH, naval officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 20, 1801; joined the navy in 1820; promoted lieutenant in 1828; commanded the schooner *Petrel* during the Mexican War, and distinguished himself in the actions at Tampico, Vera Cruz, and Tuspan; promoted commander in 1850; served in the early part of the Civil War as commander of the *Montgomery* in the Gulf Blockading Squadron; and was retired Feb. 26, 1862. He died in Germantown, Pa., July 26, 1874.

Shawmut, a peninsula with three hills which caused it to be called "Trimountain," on which Boston was built, was discovered by the Pilgrims in 1621. A boat with ten men was sent to explore Massachusetts Bay. Two or three rivers entered the bay, and peninsulas jutted into it; and so attractive were its shores that the Pilgrims regretted they had not seated themselves there. When Winthrop and a large colony came (1630), they landed at Salem, and some of them settled at Charlestown. Sickness prevailed among them from the first. Observing a fine spring of water on Shawmut, and believ-

ing its high ground to be more healthy than at Charlestown, Winthrop settled there and founded BOSTON (*q. v.*).

Shawnee Indians, a once powerful family of the Algonquian nation, supposed to have been originally of the Kickapoo tribe, a larger portion of whom moved eastward, and a part removed in 1648 to the Fox River country, in Wisconsin. The Iroquois drove them back from the point of emigration south of Lake Erie, when they took a stand in the basin of the Cumberland River, where they established their great council-house and held sway over a vast domain. Some of them went south to the region of the Carolinas and Florida, where those in the latter region held friendly relations with the Spaniards for a while, when they joined the English in the Carolinas, and were known as Yamasees and Savannahs. At about the time that the English settled at Jamestown (1607), some Southern tribes drove the Shawnees from the Cumberland region, when some of them crossed the Ohio and settled on the Scioto River, at and near the present Chillicothe. Others wandered into Pennsylvania, where, late in the seventeenth century, and also in 1701, they made treaties with William Penn. They also made treaties with the Iroquois after joining the Eries and Andastes in war against the Five Nations in 1672, when the Shawnees were defeated and fled to the land of the Catawbas in South Carolina, but from which they were soon expelled, taking refuge with the Creeks. Finally, they joined their kindred in Ohio when those in Pennsylvania went thither. The Iroquois, who claimed sovereignty over them, drove them farther westward, where they joined the French and were active in the events of the French and Indian War. They continued hostile to the English after the conquest of Canada, and were in Pontiac's confederacy. Afterwards they made war on the Virginia frontier in connection with other Western tribes. In 1774 they had a severe battle with the Virginia militia at Point Pleasant. Under English influences they took part with the Miamis in the war from 1790 until 1795, and participated in the treaty at Greenville in 1795. At that time the main body of the Shawnees were on the Scioto River, but some passed into Missouri and received land from the Spaniards. Tecumseh and his brother, the Prophet, were Shawnees, and attempted to confederate Western tribes against the white people in 1811, but most of his people in Ohio remained loyal to the United States then and in the War of 1812. Those in Missouri ceded their lands to the United States in 1825, and those in Ohio did the same in 1831. In 1909 there were 107 Eastern Shawnees, 481 Absentee Shawnees, and about 800 incorporated with the Cherokee nation, all in Oklahoma.

Shawomet, WAR AT. Gorton, the restless disturber of the peace in New England, had been whipped from colony to colony, and had settled at Shawomet (afterwards Warwick), R. I., on land ceded to him and a few followers by Miantonomoh. The settlement consisted of twelve men and their wives and children. Two Indian chiefs, claiming to be independent, protested against the cession, and appealed to the authorities at Boston. These were seconded by Benedict Arnold, who appears to have been moved by personal animosity. He entered complaints against the Shawomet settlers. Massachusetts assumed authority over that portion of Rhode Island. They summoned Miantonomoh to Boston, and on incompetent testimony it was adjudged that he had no right to sell the land. Then the Gorton colony were summoned to Boston. They replied that they were not responsible to Massachusetts, but to the government of England. A second summons was sent, with the same result. Commissioners were appointed to go to Shawomet. They were warned by Gorton that if they should come to exercise force they would be met by force. "We strictly charge you," he wrote, "that you set not a foot upon our lands in any hostile way, but upon your peril; and that if any blood be shed, upon your own heads shall it be."

The commissioners went with a minister, a band of soldiers, and some Indians. On their approach, alarm spread through the hamlet. The men prepared themselves for fight; the women, with their children, for flight. The latter, when the Boston party came, ran—some to the woods, and others to the water to a friendly boat. The men took refuge in a

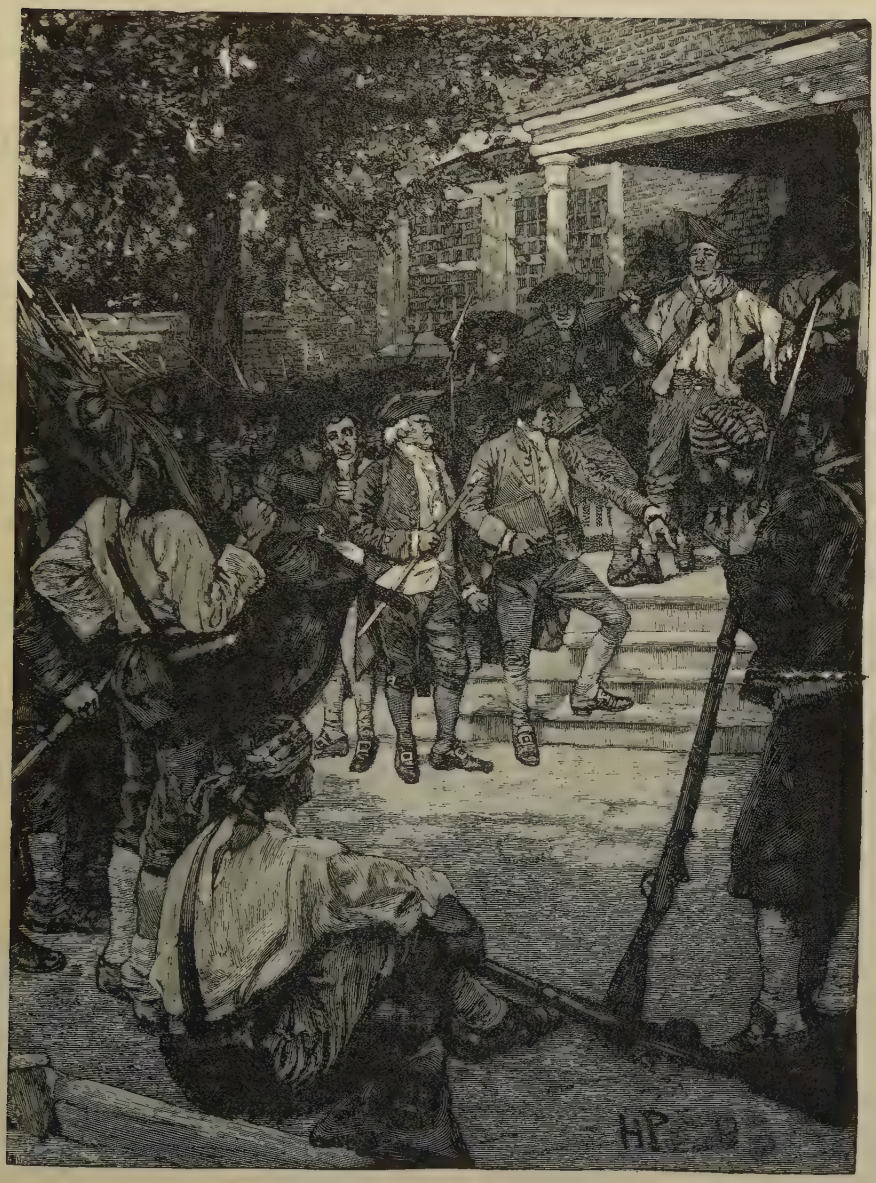
fortified log-cabin. The commissioners demanded an instant surrender. It was refused; for, as the besieged said, they owed no allegiance to Massachusetts. They proposed to submit the case to arbitration, and a truce was agreed upon until word could be received from Boston. The truce was delusive. Before the messenger sent to Boston could return, the houses of Gorton's people were broken open and plundered. Even the women and children returning from the woods were fired upon. The Bostonians besieged the Gortonians for several days. At length it was proposed to Gorton that he and his fellow-defenders should go to Boston, not as prisoners, but as "free men and neighbors." As soon as the besiegers entered the house, Gorton and his friends were disarmed and marched off to Boston as prisoners. Their property was left behind, a prey to plundering Indians, and their wives and children were scattered, and some of them died.

On the way to Boston, clergymen in villages called the people to prayers on the street, to give thanks for the victory of the Bostonians. In Boston the troops were drawn up in front of Governor Winthrop's house. The commissioners made their report, and the governor came out to welcome back the valiant troops who had gained a victory over twelve men, whose most heinous offence was disagreement in opinion with the Church and State of Massachusetts. Their trial was a sort of theological tilt. The ministers and magistrates wished to hang the prisoners, but sensible representatives of the people consented only to the punishment of being put at hard labor, each with "irons upon one leg," and commanded that they should not "by word or writing maintain any of their blasphemous or wicked errors upon pain of death." The Narragansets, under the lead of Miantonomoh, took up the quarrel in their way, and it proved the ruin of that chief. See MIANTONOMOH.

Shays, DANIEL, insurgent; born in Hopkinton, Mass., in 1747; was an ensign in Woodbridge's regiment at the battle of Bunker Hill, and became a captain in the Continental army. His place in history was obtained by his leadership of an insurrection in Massachusetts in 1786–87.

In other portions of the Union, discontents like those which produced the State of FRANKLAND (*q. v.*) caused revolutionary movements. A convention of the people of Maine, sitting in Portland (September, 1786), considered the expediency of erecting themselves into an independent State, but nothing came of it. In Massachusetts a more formidable movement took place. The General Court had voted customs and excise duties to produce a revenue sufficient to meet the interest on the State debt. Besides this burden laid upon them, the people were suffering from private indebtedness. There were taxes to meet the instalments to be paid on the principal of the State debt, and, also, responses had to be made to requisitions of Congress for the proportion of money required from Massachusetts for carrying on the general government. The taxes of the State amounted annually to $1,000,000. Many of the farmers had fallen behind in their payments. A multitude of lawsuits were pending in the courts. Conventions were called, especially in the southern and western counties, to consider their grievances, and these were sometimes followed by armed mobs which prevented the courts from sitting.

The poverty and exhaustion of the country in consequence of the war was complete. Artful demagogues stirred up the people of one class against those of another. The working-men were arrayed against the capitalists. The government of Massachusetts was held responsible for every evil; and these demagogues, seeking notoriety, so inflamed the people that large masses were ready to take up arms for the overthrow of the commonwealth. In this disturbed state of the public mind, the governor of Massachusetts (Bowdoin) called (September, 1786) a special session of the legislature. Unsuccessful attempts were made to pacify the malcontents, when the governor called out the militia to protect the courts in the southwestern counties. The Congress, fearing the dissatisfied people might seize the government armory at Springfield, voted to enlist 1,300 men (October, 1786) under pretext of acting against Indians in the Northwest; but before these troops could be raised, an insurrection had already broken out. Shays, at the head of 1,000 men or more, took possession of Worces-



SHAYS'S MOB IN POSSESSION OF A COURT-HOUSE.

ter (Dec. 5) and prevented a session of the Supreme Court in that town. He repeated this act at Springfield (Dec. 25).

The insurrection soon became so formidable that Governor Bowdoin was compelled to call out several thousand militia, under General Lincoln, to suppress it. They assembled at Boston (Jan. 17, 1787) in the depth of winter, and marched for Worcester and Springfield. Two other

bodies of insurgents were then in the field under the respective commands of Luke Day and Eli Parsons. United, they numbered about 2,000. Shays demanded the surrender (Jan. 25) of the arsenal at Springfield, and approached to take it. Colonel Shepherd, in command there, first fired cannon over their heads. When the pieces were pointed at the insurgents, they cried "Murder!" and fled in confusion. Upon Lincoln's approach (Jan. 27) the insurgents retreated. Finally, he captured 150 of them at Petersham; the rest were dispersed and fled into New Hampshire. Lincoln then marched into the districts west of the Connecticut River, where the insurgents were numerous. Their power was speedily broken. A free pardon was finally offered to all persons who had engaged in the insurrection. Several of the leaders were tried and sentenced to death, but none were executed; for it was perceived that the great mass of the people sympathized with them. So ended what is known in history as Shays's Rebellion. Shays died in Sparta, N. Y., Sept. 29, 1825.

Shea, JOHN DAWSON GILMARY, historian; born in New York City, July 22, 1824; educated in the grammar school of Columbia College, of which his father was principal; was admitted to the bar in 1846, but soon abandoned the law practice and devoted himself to literature. He was deeply interested in the work of the early Catholic missions among the American Indians, and spent much time in collecting material out of which to write a history of the Catholic Church in the United States. His publications include *The Discovery and Exploration of the Mississippi Valley; History of the Catholic Missions among the Indian Tribes of the United States; The Fallen Brave; Early Voyages up and down the Mississippi; Novum Belgium, an Account of the New Netherlands in 1643–44; The Operations of the French under Count de Grasse;* and *The Lincoln Memorial.* He also translated from the French many works relating to the United States, including Charlevoix's *History and General Description of New France;* Hennepin's *Description of Louisiana;* De Courcy's *Catholic Church in the United States,* etc. He died in Elizabeth, N. J., Feb. 22, 1892.

Sheaffe, SIR ROGER HALE, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., July 15, 1763. Earl Percy made his headquarters at the house of the mother of young Sheaffe, and he provided for the lad a military education and a commission in a regiment of foot in 1773. Sheaffe performed various military services in Europe, and in 1812 went to Canada with the rank of major-general. After the fall of Brock at Queenston, Sheaffe took command of the forces and gained a victory there. For this service he was knighted (Jan. 16, 1813). In April of the same year he defended York, and was made a full general in 1828. He died in Edinburgh, Scotland, July 17, 1851.

Shearman, THOMAS GASKELL, lawyer; born in Birmingham, England, Nov. 25, 1834; was brought to New York by his parents in 1843; received a private education; was admitted to the bar in 1859. He was one of the counsel for Henry Ward Beecher in the Beecher-Tilton trial; became conspicuous as a free-trade advocate. He was the author of *Natural Taxation; Crooked Taxation; Does Protection Protect? The Single Tax; Distribution of Wealth; Who Own the United States?* etc. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Sept. 29, 1900.

She-bears. See MOHAWK INDIANS.

Shedd, WILLIAM GREENOUGH THAYER, clergyman; born in Acton, Mass., June 21, 1820; graduated at the University of Vermont in 1839 and at the Auburn Theological Seminary in 1843. He wrote *Lectures on the Philosophy of History; Discourses and Essays,* etc. He died in New York City, Nov. 17, 1894.

Sheep. The United States ranks third among the nations of the world in the number of sheep on its farms and ranges, having (1910) 57,216,000 of shearing age, valued at $233,664,000. Among the States, Wyoming led with 7,316,000, followed by Montana, 5,747,000; New Mexico, 4,729,000; Idaho, 4,248,000; Ohio, 3,203,000; and Utah, 3,177,000. For the production of wool, see WOOL INDUSTRY.

Shelburne, a seaport town of Nova Scotia, capital of Shelburne county; 141 miles southwest of Halifax. It has a beautiful harbor, and its industries include commerce, fishing, and ship-building. Excellent water-power is furnished by the river Roseway. During the Revolutionary

War it had a population of about 12,000 inhabitants, and was the centre of loyalist influence. Pop. (1907), 1,500.

Shelburne, William Petty Fitz-Maurice, Marquis of Lansdowne; born in Dublin, Ireland, May 20, 1737; educated at Oxford University; joined the British army in 1757, and won distinction; succeeded to the earldom of Lansdowne in 1761; elected to Parliament in the same year; opposed the Stamp Act and other policies oppressive to America; was a personal friend of Benjamin Franklin; began the negotiations which brought about peace with the United States; created Marquis of Lansdowne in 1784. He died in London, England, May 2, 1805.

Shelby, Evan, pioneer; born in Wales in 1720; accompanied his parents to Maryland in 1735; rose to the rank of captain in the French and Indian War. Early in 1779 about 1,000 Indians assembled at Chickamauga and Chattanooga, Ga., to join the Northern Indians in Hamilton's conspiracy. To restrain their ravages, the governments of North Carolina and Virginia appointed Shelby to the command of 1,000 men, called into service chiefly from the region west of the mountains. These were joined by a regiment of twelve-month men who had been enlisted to reinforce Clarke in Illinois. In the middle of April they went down the Tennessee River in canoes and pirogues so rapidly that the savages were surprised, and fled to the hills and woods, pursued by the white troops. Forty of the Indians were killed. Their towns were burned, their cultivated fields were laid waste, and their cattle were driven away. For the rest of the year there was peace among the Western settlements, and a stream of emigrants flowed through the mountains into Kentucky, increasing the number of settlements. Shelby afterwards attained the rank of brigadier-general. He died at King's Meadows, Tenn., Dec. 4, 1794.

Shelby, Isaac, military officer; born near Hagerstown, Md., Dec. 11, 1750; son

ISAAC SHELBY.

of Gen. Evan Shelby; in early life was a surveyor in western Virginia; became a captain in 1776, and commissary in 1777, rising to the rank of colonel in 1780. He was a chief leader in the defeat of

MEDAL PRESENTED TO ISAAC SHELBY.

Ferguson at King's Mountain, and was in other engagements, serving under Marion in 1781, and subsequently joining Greene with 500 mounted volunteers. Shelby was governor of Kentucky from 1792 to 1796, and again from 1812 to 1816. At the head of 4,000 troops, he joined General Harrison in an invasion of Canada in 1813, and fought at the battle of the Thames. For his conduct there Congress gave him a gold medal. He declined the offer of a seat in President Monroe's cabinet as Secretary of War on account of his age. His last public act was serving as a commissioner with General Jackson in forming a treaty with the Chickasaw Indians. He died near Stanford, Ky., July 18, 1826.

Sheldon, GEORGE WILLIAM, author; born in Summerville, S. C., Jan. 28, 1843; graduated at Princeton College in 1863; He is the author of *American Painters; The Volunteer Fire Department of New York City; Recent Ideals of American Art*, etc.

"Shenandoah," Confederate cruiser. See CONFEDERATE STATES (*Navy*).

Shenandoah, a river which flows n. e. through the valley of Virginia, and immediately below Harper's Ferry joins the Potomac, of which it is the principal tributary. Its length is 170 miles, the greater part of which is navigable for boats. The valley of the Shenandoah was the scene of numerous military operations in the American Civil War, and was devastated by General Sheridan in 1864.

Shenandoah, Valley, CHRONOLOGY OF THE OPERATIONS IN THE.

Campaign of Grant against Lee. Sigel is sent up the valley with 10,000 men, supported by General Crook, ... May 1, 1864
Breckinridge defeats Sigel at Newmarket ..... May 15, "
Grant relieves Sigel and appoints Hunter, who defeats the Confederates under Gen. W. E. Jones at Piedmont, ... June 5, "
Hunter, joined by Crook and Averill, advances to Staunton, and on June 18 threatens Lynchburg with 20,000 men; but, opposed by a much stronger force, escapes into West Virginia.
Confederate forces, now under General Early, move rapidly down the Shenandoah to the Potomac, and spread consternation from Baltimore to Washington ..... July 2-3, "
Gen. Lew. Wallace attempts to check the Confederates at Monocacy; is defeated with a loss of 98 killed, 579 wounded, and 1,280 missing, July 9, "
Confederate cavalry approach Baltimore, ... July 10, "
On the 11th Early is within 6 or 7 miles of Washington, and menaces the capital on the 12th, but retires on the 13th. The 19th Corps arriving at Fortress Monroe from Louisiana, and the 6th Corps from before Petersburg, sent by Grant under Wright to attack Early, pursue him some distance up the valley, and are ordered back to Petersburg. Early returns as soon as the pursuit ceases; strikes Crook at Martinsburg, defeats him, and holds the Potomac from Shepardstown to Williamsport.
Early now sends B. R. Johnston and McCausland with some 3,000 cavalry on a raid into Pennsylvania. July 30, 1864
Approaching Chambersburg, Pa., they demand $100,000, which is not paid, and burn the town ..... July 30, "
Sixth and 19th Corps, on their way to Petersburg, return. Grant relieves General Hunter, and gives the command to Sheridan ..... Aug. 7, "
Sheridan attacks and defeats Early at Opequan Creek ..... Sept. 19, "
Early falls back to Fisher's Hill, where Sheridan routs him, taking 1,100 prisoners and 16 guns ..... Sept. 22, "
Sheridan pushes Early to the mountains; returns to Cedar Creek, Oct. 15, "
Early, reinforced, returns to Fisher's Hill, and, learning of Sheridan's absence, sets out to attack on Oct. 18, "
Surprises the Federals under Wright, driving them back with a loss of 24 guns and 1,200 prisoners. Oct. 19, "
Sheridan at Winchester on the night of the 18th. On his way to the front news of the rout of his army reaches him. His arrival on the field stops the retreat. Early is crushed and the campaign in the valley ended, Oct. 19, 1864. See CEDAR CREEK.
Sheridan, with 10,000 cavalry, drives the Confederates from Waynesboro, Feb. 27, and, advancing, joins Grant before Petersburg ..... March 27, 1865

Shepard, ALEXANDER ROBEY, administrator; born in Washington, D. C., Jan. 30, 1835; served in the United States army in 1861; connected in various capacities with the government of the District of Columbia, 1861–74. He transformed Washington into a beautiful city. He died at Batopilas, Mexico, Sept. 12, 1902.

Shepard, EDWARD MORSE, lawyer; born in New York City, July 23, 1850; admitted to the bar 1871; civil service commissioner, Brooklyn, 1883–85; State forestry commissioner, 1884–85; unsuccessful candidate for mayor of New York, 1901. Author of *Martin Van Buren; Memoirs of Dugdale*, etc. He died at Lake George, July 28, 1911.

Shepard, THOMAS, clergyman; born in Towcester, England, Nov. 5, 1605; graduated at Oxford University in 1627; settled in Boston, Mass., in 1635; and was active in establishing Harvard College. His publications include *New England's*

Lamentations for Old England's Errors; The Clear Sunshine of the Gospel Breaking out on the Indians of New England, etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Aug. 25, 1649.

Shepard, WILLIAM, military officer; born near Boston, Mass., Dec. 1, 1737; served in the provincial army in 1757–63; commissioned colonel of the 4th Massachusetts Regiment in 1777; remained in the army till 1783, taking part in twenty-two actions; settled in Medway, Mass., appointed brigadier-general of militia; prevented Daniel Shays's followers from seizing the Springfield arsenal in 1786; and was member of Congress in 1797–1803. He died in Westfield, Mass., Nov. 11, 1817.

Shepherd, OLIVER LATHROP, military officer; born in Clifton Park, N. Y., Aug. 15, 1815; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1840; served in the Mexican War, winning distinction at Contreras, Churubusco, and Chapultepec; promoted captain in 1847; served through the Civil War; promoted colonel in 1863 and received the brevet of brigadier-general in 1865; retired in 1870. He died in New York City, April 16, 1894.

Shepherd, WILLIAM ROBERT, author; born in Charleston, S. C., June 12, 1871; graduated at Columbia College in 1893, and became a lecturer there. He is the author of *History of Proprietary Government in Pennsylvania; The Battle of Harlem Heights; The Land System of Provincial Pennsylvania; Spanish Archives,* etc.

Shepley, ETHER, jurist; born in Groton, Mass., Nov. 2, 1789; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1811; practised law in Saco and Portland; was in the Massachusetts legislature in 1819; in the Maine constitutional convention in 1820; United States district attorney for Maine in 1821–23; United States Senator in 1833–36; became a justice of the Supreme Court of Maine in 1836; was chief-justice in 1848–55; and sole commissioner to prepare the *Revised Statutes of Maine.* He died Jan. 15, 1877.

Shepley, GEORGE FOSTER, military officer; born in Saco, Me., Jan. 1, 1819; son of Chief-Justice Ether Shepley; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1837; studied at the Harvard Law School and at Portland; and began the practice of law at Bangor. President Polk appointed him United States district attorney, which post he held until 1861, when he became colonel of the 12th Maine Volunteers, and took part in General Butler's expedition against New Orleans. On the surrender of that city he was made its commandant. In July he became a brigadier-general, and was military governor of Louisiana from July 2, 1862, until 1864. On the surrender of Richmond (April, 1865), he was made military governor of that city. He resigned in July, and resumed the practice of law in Portland. In 1869 he was appointed United States circuit judge for the first circuit, and held the office till his death in Portland, Me., July 20, 1878.

Sheppard, FURMAN, lawyer; born in Bridgeton, N. J., Nov. 21, 1823; graduated at Princeton College in 1845; admitted to the bar in 1848 and practised in Philadelphia. In 1876 he established a magistrate's court in the Centennial Exhibition grounds, which became known as Sheppard's Railroad, and which effectually broke up the preparations of the criminal classes to prey upon visitors. His publications include *The Constitutional Textbook: A Practical and Familiar Exposition of the Constitution of the United States; The First Book of the Constitution,* etc. He died in 1893.

Sherbrooke, SIR JOHN COAPE, military officer; born in England, about 1760; became lieutenant-general in the British army in 1811. Early in July, 1814, Commodore Hardy sailed secretly from Halifax, with a considerable land and naval force, and captured Eastport, Me., without much opposition. This easy conquest encouraged the British to attempt the seizure of the whole region between Passamaquoddy Bay and the Penobscot River. A strong squadron, under Admiral Griffith, bearing about 4,000 troops, led by Sherbrooke, then governor of Nova Scotia, captured Castine, on Penobscot Bay, and also Belfast, and went up the Penobscot River to Hampden, a few miles below Bangor, to capture or destroy the American corvette *John Adams,* which, caught in that stream, had gone up so far to escape from the British. The militia, called to defend Hampden and the *Adams,* fled when the British approached, and the object of the latter was accomplished.

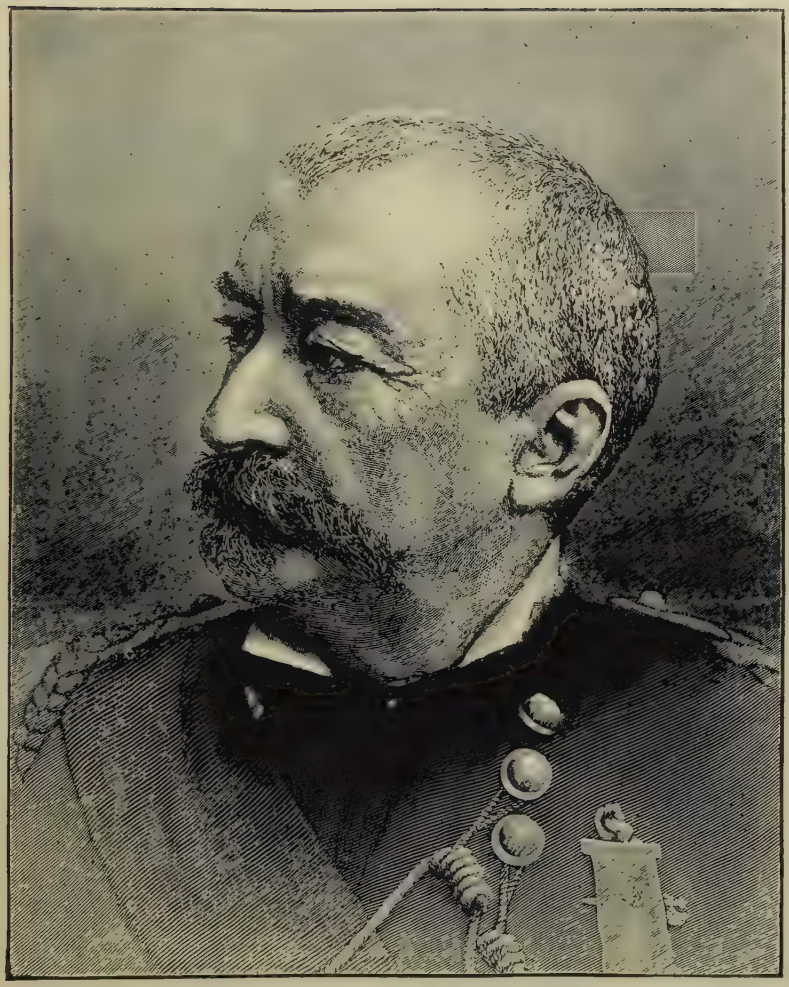
Captain Morris, commander of the *Adams*, burned her to prevent her falling into the hands of the British. The latter pressed on to Bangor, where they tarried about

SIR JOHN COAPE SHERBROOKE.

thirty hours, destroyed several vessels at the mouth of the Kenduskeag, and plundered property valued at over $20,000. Then they returned to Hampden and there repeated their destructive work. Then the troops and fleet descended the Penobscot, and, after capturing Machias, returned to Halifax. General Gosselin was left to hold the country, which he did with dignity and humanity. Sir John died in Claverton, England, Feb. 14, 1830.

Sheridan, PHILIP HENRY, military officer; born in Albany, N. Y., March 6, 1831; graduated at West Point in 1853; served with much credit in Texas and Oregon, doing good service in the latter region, and settling difficulties with the Indians; was made captain in May, 1861, and during the summer was president of a military commission to audit claims in Missouri. In December he was made chief commissary of the Army of the Southwest, and was on the staff of General Halleck at Corinth, performing the same duties. In May, 1862, he was made colonel of the 2d Michigan Cavalry; on June 6 defeated Forrest's cavalry, and on July 1 repulsed and defeated a superior Confederate force under Chalmers at Booneville, Miss. He was then at the head of a brigade of cavalry, and was made brigadier-general. In August he defeated Faulkner's cavalry in Mississippi Late in September he took command of a division in the Army of the Ohio, and led another division at the battle of Perryville. He also commanded a division with great efficiency in the battle at Stone River, and for his services there he was made (Dec. 31) major-general of volunteers. He afterwards rendered signal service in the battles of Chickamauga and Missionary Ridge, when he was transferred to the Army of the Potomac (April, 1864) as chief of cavalry.

When the Federal army emerged from the Wilderness, in 1864, General Sheridan was sent to cut Lee's communications with Richmond. This was the first of the great raids of that leader in Virginia, and was a short but destructive one. He took with him a greater portion of the cavalry led by Merritt, Gregg, and Wilson, crossed the North Anna on May 9, and struck the Virginia Central Railroad, capturing Beaver Dam Station. He destroyed 10 miles of the railway, its rolling stock, 1,500,000 rations, and released 400 Union prisoners on their way to Richmond. There he was attacked by Stuart and his cavalry, but was not much impeded thereby. He pushed forward, and on the morning of the 11th captured Ashland Station, on the Fredericksburg road, a few miles from Richmond, where he destroyed the railroad for 6 miles and a large quantity of stores. He was charged with menacing Richmond and communicating with the Army of the James, under General Butler. A few miles from Richmond he had another sharp contest with Stuart, and drove him and his cavalry towards Ashland. Stuart was killed, and General Gordon was mortally wounded. Sheridan still pressed



GENERAL PHILIP H. SHERIDAN

on, and made a dash upon the outer works at Richmond. Custer's brigade carried them at that point and made 100 prisoners. The inner works were too strong for cavalry. The Confederates gathered, and in a fight Sheridan was repulsed. He led his command across the Chickahominy, fighting a Confederate force at Meadow Bridge; destroyed a railway bridge; rested three days at Haxhall's Landing, on the James, and procured supplies; and then, by way of the White House, leisurely returned to the Army of the Potomac.

In the campaign against Richmond until August, 1864, he did signal service in making destructive raids on Lee's communications. On Aug. 1 he was detached to the valley of the Shenandoah, where he defeated the Confederates in several en gagements. During this campaign Gen-

SHERIDAN'S RIDE.

eral Wright was defeated by General Early on Oct. 18, 1864, at CEDAR CREEK (*q. v.*). Sheridan at the time was in Winchester, and as soon as he got the news he rode to the front at a swinging gallop, rallied the Nationals, and crushed Early. Sheridan's ride has been immortalized in poetry, art, and song.

Sheridan left Winchester on Feb. 27, 1865, with about 10,000 men, composed of the divisions of cavalry of Merritt and Custer. To the latter division was added a brigade of West Virginia troops under Colonel Capehart. Sheridan's troops moved rapidly up the Shenandoah Valley towards Staunton. On the way they met Rosser, with 400 men, who was disposed to dispute the passage of a fork of the Shenandoah; but he was soon chased away, and the column moved on to Staunton and Rockfish Gap. Early, with 2,500 men behind strong intrenchments, was at Waynesboro to dispute their passage. Custer soon routed him, capturing 1,600 of his men, with eleven guns, seventeen battle-flags, and 200 loaded wagons, with a loss of less than a dozen men. This finished Early as a military leader. The raiders destroyed Confederate property in the vicinity valued at $1,000,000. During that night Sheridan went over the Blue Ridge in a drenching rain, and entered Charlottesville late the next day, where he waited for his pontoons and ammunition to come over the mountains. In the mean time his troops destroyed bridges, factories, depots, and the railway in the direction of Lynchburg for about 8 miles. Satisfied that the latter place was too strong for him, he divided his force and pushed for the James River. Rains had so swollen the river that his pontoons would not span it. Proceeding eastward, he destroyed the James River Canal (then the chief channel of supplies for Richmond) and numerous bridges. This produced the greatest consternation in Richmond. The Confederate government prepared to fly, and the families of officials packed for a journey. The Congress, made nervous, wanted to adjourn and depart, but they were persuaded to remain. From Columbia, where Sheridan rested a day, he dashed off to the Virginia Central Railway, which he destroyed for the distance of 15 miles. Then Custer in one direction, and Devin in another, made complete destruction of railways and bridges, as well as supplies, in Lee's rear, inflicting a more serious blow to the Confederate cause than any victory during the last campaign. Sheridan then swept around by the White House, and joined the army before Petersburg on March 26. He had disabled fully 200 miles of railway, destroyed a vast number of bridges, and property to the value of several million dollars.

After the war he was in command in Louisiana and Texas, and enforced the "reconstruction" acts there, for which he was removed by President Johnson in August, 1867. He was made lieutenant-general in March, 1869, and general of the army, June 1, 1888. He died in Nonquitt, Mass., Aug. 5, 1888.

Sherman, HENRY, lawyer; born in Albany, N. Y., March 6, 1808; graduated at Yale College in 1829. He published *The Governmental History of the United States of America;* and *Slavery in the United States of America.* He died in Washington, D. C., March 28, 1879.

Sherman, JAMES SCHOOLCRAFT; born in Utica, N. Y., Oct. 24, 1855; graduated from Hamilton College, 1878; admitted to the bar, 1880; mayor of Utica, 1884; member of Congress, 1887–91, 1893–1909; chairman of the Republican State Convention, 1895, 1900. He was elected Vice-President of the United States Nov. 3, 1908; was renominated in 1912; and died Oct. 30, 1912.

Sherman, JOHN, statesman; born in Lancaster, O., May 10, 1823; brother of Gen. William T. Sherman; was admitted to the bar in 1844; elected to Congress in 1854, and served there until 1861, when he became United States Senator. He was a leading member of the finance committee of the Senate during the Civil War. He and Thaddeus Stevens were the framers of the bill passed in 1866–67 for the reorganization of the so-called "seceded States." He was also the author of a bill providing for the resumption of specie payments on Jan. 1, 1879; and on March 4, 1877, President Hayes called him to his cabinet as Secretary of the Treasury. In 1881 he was re-elected to the United States Senate; became chairman of the committee on foreign relations; resigned

JOHN SHERMAN.

in 1897 to become Secretary of State; and retired from that office in April, 1898. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 22, 1900. Mr. Sherman published *Recollections*. See SHERMAN ANTI-TRUST LAW.

Sherman, ROGER, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Newton, Mass., April 19, 1721; in early life was a shoemaker, and after the death of his father (1741) he supported his mother and several younger children by his industry, at the same time employing all his leisure time in acquiring knowledge, especially of mathematics. In 1743 he joined an elder brother in keeping a small store in New Milford, Conn., and the next year was appointed county surveyor of lands. For several years (1748–60) he furnished the astronomical calculations for an almanac published in New York. Meanwhile he had studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1754. He was elected to the Connecticut Assembly several times, and in 1759 became a judge of the court of common pleas. Removing to New Haven in 1761, he became a judge of the same court there in 1765, holding the office until 1789. He was also chosen an assistant in 1766, and held the office nineteen years. In 1774 he was chosen a delegate to the first Continental Congress. He continued in Congress until his death, at which time he was in the United States Senate. Judge Sherman was one of the committee appointed to draft the Declaration of Independence; served on the most important committees during the war; from 1784 until his death was mayor of New Haven, and was chiefly instrumental in securing the ratification of the national Constitution by Connecticut. He was one of the most useful men of his time. Jefferson declared that he "never said a foolish thing in his life." He died in New Haven, Conn., July 23, 1793.

Sherman, THOMAS WEST, military officer; born in Newport, R. I., March 26, 1813; graduated at West Point in 1836; served with General Taylor in the war against Mexico, in command of a battery; and was brevetted major. He commanded a division in the battle of Bull Run, and led the land forces in the Port Royal expedition, landing at Hilton Head Nov. 7, 1861. In March, 1862, he was superseded by General Hunter, and joined the army under Halleck at Corinth. He did excellent service in the region of the lower Mississippi in 1862–63; commanded a division in the siege of Port Hudson; received (March 13, 1865) the brevet of major-general, United States army, for services there and during the war; and was retired with the rank of major-general, Dec. 31, 1870. He died in Newport, R. I., March 16, 1879.

SHERMAN, WILLIAM TECUMSEH

Sherman, WILLIAM TECUMSEH, military officer; born in Mansfield, O., Feb. 8, 1820; graduated at West Point in 1840. His father died in 1829, when he was adopted by Thomas Ewing, whose daughter Ellen he married in 1850. He served in the Seminole War, and in September, 1850, was made commissary, with the rank of captain. In 1853 he resigned, became a broker in California, and, practising law for a while in Kansas, was made superintendent of a new military academy established by the State of Louisiana. When the convention of that State passed the ordinance of secession, Captain Sherman resigned; was made colonel of United States infantry in May, 1861; and commanded a brigade at the battle of Bull

Run, having been made brigadier-general of volunteers in May. In October, 1861, he succeeded General Anderson in the command of the Department of Kentucky. The Secretary of War asked him how many men he should require. He answered, "Sixty thousand to drive the enemy from Kentucky, and 200,000 to finish the war in this section." This estimate seemed so wild that he was reputed to be insane, and was relieved of his command; but events proved that he was more sane than most other people.

After the capture of Fort Donelson he was placed in command of a division of Grant's Army of the Tennessee, and performed signal service in the battle of Shiloh. "To his individual efforts," said Grant, "I am indebted for the success of that battle." There he was slightly wounded, and had three horses shot under him. In May he was made a major-general.

GENERAL SHERMAN IN THE FIELD.

From July to November, 1862, he commanded at Memphis; and throughout the campaign against Vicksburg (December, 1862, to July, 1863) his services were most conspicuous and valuable.

How fully General Grant appreciated the services of both Sherman and McPherson can be seen from the following letter:

"HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF TENNESSEE,

"VICKSBURG, MISS., *July 22, 1863.*

"*His Excellency A. Lincoln, President of the United States, Washington, D. C.:*

"I would most respectfully but urgently recommend the promotion of Maj.-Gen. W. T. Sherman, now commanding the 15th Army Corps, and Maj.-Gen. J. B. McPherson, commanding the 17th Army Corps, to the position of brigadier-general in the regular army. The first reason for this is their great fitness for any command it may ever become necessary to intrust to them. Second, their great purity of character and disinterestedness in anything except the faithful performance of their duty, and the success of every one engaged in the great battle for the preservation of the Union. Third, they have honorably won this distinction upon many well-fought battle-fields. I will only mention some of his services while serving under my command.

"To General Sherman I was greatly indebted for his promptness in forwarding to me, during the siege of Fort Donelson, reinforcements and supplies from Paducah. At the battle of Shiloh, on the first day, he held with raw troops the key points to the landing. To his individual effort I am indebted for the success of that battle. Twice hit, and (I think three) horses shot under him on that day, he maintained his position with his raw troops. It is no disparagement to any other officer to say that I do not believe there was another division commander on the field who had the skill or experience to have done it. His services as division commander in the advance on Corinth, I will venture, were appreciated by the (now) general-in-chief beyond those of any other division commander. General Sherman's management, as commander of troops in the attack on Chickasaw Bluff, last December, was admirable. Seeing the ground from the opposite side of the attack, I see the impossibility of making it successful. The conception of the attack on Arkansas Post was General Sherman's. His part of the execution no one denies was as good as it possibly could have been. His demonstration on Haines's Bluff, in April, to hold the enemy at Vicksburg while the army was securing a foothold east of the Mississippi; his rapid march to join the army afterwards; his management at Jackson, Miss., in the first attack; his almost unequalled march from Jackson to Bridgeport, and passage of that stream; his securing Walnut Hill, on May 18, and thus opening communication with our supplies—all attest his great merits as a soldier.

"The siege of Vicksburg, the last capture of Jackson, and the dispersion of Johnston's army, entitle General Sherman to more credit than it usually falls to the lot of one man to earn.

"General McPherson has been with me in every battle since the commencement of the rebellion, except Belmont. At Henry, Donelson, Shiloh, and the siege of Corinth, as a staff officer and engineer, his services were conspicuous and highly meritorious. At the second battle of Corinth his skill as a soldier was displayed in successfully carrying reinforcements to the besieged garrison when the enemy was between him and the point to be reached. In the advance through central Mississippi, last November and December, General McPherson commanded one wing of the army with all the ability possible to show, he having the lead in advance and the rear in return. In the campaign and siege, terminating in the fall of Vicksburg, General McPherson has borne a conspicuous part. At the battle of Port Gibson, it was under his immediate direction that the enemy was driven, late in the afternoon, from a position that they had succeeded in holding all day against an obstinate attack. His corps—the advance always under his immediate eye—were the pioneers in the advance from Port Gibson to Hankerson's Ferry. From the North Fork of Bayou Pierre to the Black River it was a constant skirmish, the whole skilfully managed. The enemy was so closely

pressed as to be unable to destroy their bridge of boats after them. From Hankerson's Ferry to Jackson the 17th Army Corps marched upon roads not travelled by other troops, fighting the battle of Raymond alone; and the bulk of Johnston's army at Jackson also was fought by this corps entirely under the management of General McPherson. At Champion Hill, the 17th Army Corps and General McPherson were conspicuous. All that could be termed a battle there was fought by two divisions of General McPherson's Corps and Hovey's division of the 13th Corps.

"In the assault of May 22 on the fortifications of Vicksburg, and during the entire siege, General McPherson and his command won unfading laurels. He is one of our ablest engineers and most skilful generals.

"Very respectfully,

"Your obedient servant,

"U. S. GRANT, Major-General."

He commanded one of the three corps in the siege of Vicksburg. After the fall of Vicksburg he operated successfully against Gen. Joseph E. Johnston. In October, 1863, he was made commander of the Department of the Tennessee, and joined Grant at Chattanooga in the middle of November; was in the battle of Missionary Ridge (Nov. 25); and then moved to the relief of Burnside in east Tennessee. When he was called to Chattanooga, he left Gen. J. B. McPherson in command at Vicksburg; but soon after Bragg was driven southward from Chattanooga Sherman suddenly reappeared in Mississippi. At the head of 20,000 troops he made a most destructive raid (February, 1864) from Jackson to the intersection of important railways at Meridian, in that State.

His object was to inflict as much injury on the Confederate cause and its physical strength as possible. He believed in the righteousness and efficacy of making such a war terrible, and the line of his march eastward presented a black path of desolation. No public property of the Confederates was spared. The station-houses and rolling-stock of the railways were burned. The track was torn up, and the rails, heated by the burning ties cast into heaps, were twisted and ruined. Sherman intended to push on to Montgomery, Ala., and then, if circumstances appeared favorable, to go south-

SHERMAN AND HIS GENERALS

GENERAL WILLIAM T. SHERMAN

SHERMAN'S TROOPS BURNING A RAILROAD STATION.

ward and attack Mobile. He waited at Meridian for Gen. W. S. Smith to join him with a considerable force of cavalry, but that officer was held back by the Confederate forces under Forrest and others. After waiting in vain for a week, Sherman laid Meridian in ashes, and returned to Vicksburg with 500 prisoners and 5,000 liberated slaves. This raid created great consternation, for General Polk, with his 15,000 men, made but a feeble resistance. Sherman's loss was 171 men.

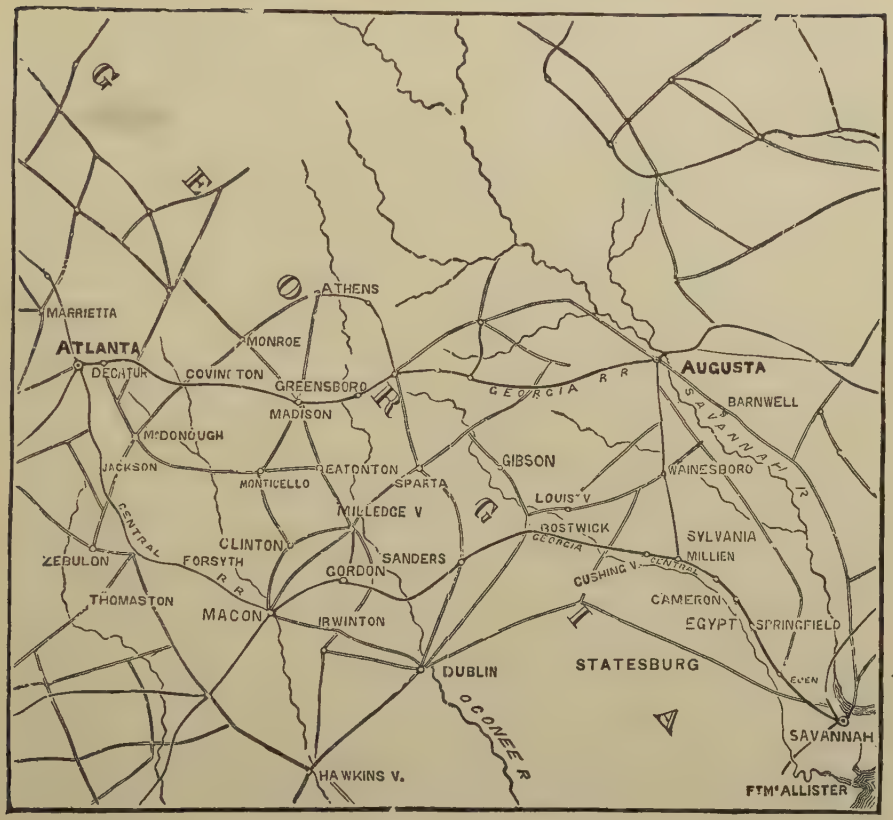
General Grant arranged two grand campaigns for the year 1864. One, under his own immediate direction, was for the seizure of Richmond, the Confederate capital; the other was for the seizure of Atlanta, Ga., the focus of several converging railways. The latter expedition was led by General Sherman. His army numbered nearly 100,000 men, comprising the Army of the Cumberland, led by Gen. George H. Thomas; the Army of the Tennessee, commanded by Gen. J. B. McPherson; and the Army of the Ohio, led by Gen. J. M. Schofield. When, on May 6, 1864, Sherman began to move southward from the vicinity of Chattanooga, his army was confronted by a Confederate force of 55,000 men, led by Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, and arranged in three corps, commanded respectively by Generals Hardee, Hood, and Polk. This army then lay at Dalton, at the parting of the ways —one leading into east Tennessee and the other into west Tennessee. To strike that position in front was, at least, perilous; so Sherman began a series of successful flanking movements. When he flanked the Confederates at Dalton, they fell back to Resaca Station, on the Oostenaula River, on the line of the railway between Chattanooga and Atlanta. There a sharp battle was fought on May 15. Johnston took his next position at Allatoona Pass, and Sherman massed his troops at Dallas, westward of that post, where a severe battle was fought May 25. Johnston finally pressed on to Marietta and Atlanta, where, towards the middle of July, he was

succeeded by Hood. The latter city was captured by Sherman, who entered it Sept. 2, 1864. Late in October Sherman prepared for a march through Georgia from Atlanta to Savannah. See ATLANTA.

When he resolved to march through the heart of Georgia from Atlanta to the sea, he delegated to General Thomas full power over all the troops under his (Sherman's) command excepting four corps. He also gave him command of two divisions of A. J. Smith's, then returning from the expulsion of Price from Missouri, also of the garrisons in Tennessee, and all the cavalry of the military division excepting a division under Kilpatrick, which he reserved for operations in Georgia. General Wilson had just arrived from Petersburg to take command of the cavalry of the army. He was sent to Nashville to gather up all the Union cavalry in Kentucky and Tennessee, and report to Thomas. It was believed that Thomas now had strength sufficient to keep Hood out of Tennessee, whose force then was about 35,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry. When, on Nov. 1, Hood was laying a pontoon bridge over the Tennessee at Florence for the invasion of Tennessee, Sherman, who had pursued him, turned his forces towards Atlanta, his troops destroying all the mills and foundries at Rome, and dismantling the railway from the Etowah River to the Chattahoochee. The railways around Atlanta were destroyed, and on Nov. 14 the forces destined for the great march were concentrated around the doomed city.

Those forces were composed of four army corps, the right wing commanded by Gen. O. O. Howard, and the left wing by Gen. H. W. Slocum. Howard's right was composed of the corps of Generals Osterhaus and Blair, and the left of the corps of Gen. J. C. Davis and A. S. Williams. General Kilpatrick commanded the cavalry, consisting of one division. Sherman's entire force numbered 60,000 infantry and artillery and 5,500 cavalry. On Nov. 11 Sherman cut the telegraph wires that connected Atlanta with Washington, and his army became an isolated column in the heart of an enemy's country. It began its march for the sea on the morning of the 14th, when the entire city of Atlanta—excepting its court-house, churches, and dwellings—was committed to the flames. The buildings in the heart of the city, covering 200

GENERAL SHERMAN MOVING OUT OF ATLANTA.



MAP SHOWING COUNTRY COVERED IN SHERMAN'S MARCH TO THE SEA.

acres of ground, formed a great conflagration; and, while the fire was raging, the bands played, and the soldiers chanted the stirring air and words, "John Brown's soul goes marching on!"

For thirty-six days that army moved through Georgia, with very little opposition, subsisting off the country. It was a sort of military promenade, requiring very little military skill in the performance, and as little personal prowess. It was grand in conception, and easily executed. Yet on that march there were many deeds that tested the prowess and daring of the soldiers on both sides. Kilpatrick's first dash across the Flint River and against Wheeler's cavalry, and then towards Macon, burning a train of cars and tearing up the railway, gave the Confederates a suspicion of Sherman's intentions. There was wide-spread consternation in Georgia and South Carolina, for the invader's destination was uncertain. Beauregard was sent from the Appomattox to the Savannah to confront the Nationals. He sent before him a manifesto in which he said, "Destroy all the roads in Sherman's front, flank, and rear," and, "be trustful in Providence." Benjamin H. Hill, of Georgia, in the Confederate Congress at Richmond, wrote to the people of his State: "Every citizen with his gun and every negro with his spade and axe can do the work of a soldier. You can destroy the enemy by retarding his march. Be firm!" The representatives of Georgia in the Confederate Congress called upon their people to fly to arms. "Remove your negroes, horses, cattle, and provisions from Sherman's army," they

said, "and burn what you cannot carry away. Burn all bridges and block up the roads in his route. Assail the invader in front, flank, and rear, by night and by day. Let him have no rest." And Governor Brown, before he fled from Milledgeville on the approach of the Nationals, issued a proclamation ordering a levy *en masse* of the whole white population of the State between the ages of sixteen and forty-five, and offering pardon to prisoners in the penitentiary if they would volunteer and prove themselves good soldiers. But the people did none of these things, and only about 100 convicts accepted the offer.

All confidence in President Davis and the Confederate government had disappeared in Georgia, and a great portion of the people were satisfied that it was, as they expressed it, "the rich man's war, and the poor man's fight," and would no longer lend themselves to the authorities at Richmond. The National army moved steadily forward. At Griswoldsville there was a sharp engagement (Nov. 22) with a portion of Hardee's troops sent up from Savannah, and several brigades of militia. The Confederates were repulsed with a loss of 2,500 men. Howard could have taken Macon after this blow upon its defenders, but such was not a part of Sherman's plan. The Nationals were attacked at the Oconee River while laying a pontoon bridge, but the assailants, largely composed of Wheeler's cavalry, were defeated. Kilpatrick made a feint towards Augusta to mislead the Confederates as to Sherman's destination, also to cover the passage of the army over the Ogeechee River, and, if possible, to release Union captives in the prison-pen at Millen. Kilpatrick and Wheeler had several skirmishes, but no severe battles. On Nov. 30, Sherman's whole army, excepting one corps, had passed the Ogeechee. This was a most skilful manœuvre; and then, having destroyed the principal railways in Georgia over long distances, Sherman was prepared to make a final conquest of the State. Moving on seaward, the division of Hazen had a severe skirmish (Dec. 4) at Statesburg, south of the Ogeechee.

GENERAL SHERMAN'S HEADQUARTERS DURING MARCH TO THE SEA.

ATTACK ON FORT McALLISTER.

The Confederates were dispersed. On the same day Kilpatrick fought Wheeler on the railway between Millen and Augusta, drove him from his barricades through Waynesboro, and pushed him 8 miles, while a supporting column of Union infantry under Baird were tearing up the railway and destroying bridges.

When Sherman reached Millen, the Union prisoners had been removed; and he pushed on, amid swamps and sands, with the city of Savannah, where Hardee was in command, as his chief object. Kilpatrick and Baird covered the rear of the wing columns between the Ogeechee and Savannah rivers. There was some skirmishing, but no Confederates in force were seen until within 15 miles of Savannah. All the roads leading into that city were obstructed by felled trees, earthworks, and artillery. These were turned, and by Dec. 10 the Confederates were all driven within their lines, and Savannah was completely beleaguered; but the only approaches to it were by five narrow causeways. They had broken communications, so that no supplies could be received in Savannah. Sherman sought to make the Ogeechee an avenue of supply, oceanward, for his army, and to communicate with the Union fleet outside. The latter was soon effected. Fort McAllister, near the mouth of the Ogeechee, was in the way, and, on the 13th, Slocum ordered General Hazen to carry it by assault. It was a strong, enclosed redoubt, garrisoned by 200 men. It was carried, and this was the brilliant ending of the march from Atlanta to the sea. It opened to Sherman's army a new base of supplies. Sherman communicated with the officers of the fleet, and, on Dec. 17, he summoned Hardee to surrender. Hardee refused. Perceiving the arrangements made to cut off his retreat to Charleston, Hardee secretly withdrew on the dark and stormy night of Dec. 20, and, with 15,000 men, escaped to that city. The National army took possession of Savannah on Dec. 22, 1864. On the 26th Sherman wrote to President Lincoln: "I beg to present to you, as a Christmas gift, the city of Savanah, with 150 heavy guns and plenty of ammunition, and also about 25,000 bales

of cotton." On his march Sherman had lived generously off the country, which was abundantly filled with provisions. He appropriated to the use of the army 13,000 beeves, 160,000 bushels of corn, more than 5,000 tons of fodder, besides a large number of sheep, swine, fowls, and quantities of potatoes and rice. He forced into the service 5,000 horses and 4,000 mules. He captured 1,328 prisoners and 167 guns, and destroyed 20,000 bales of cotton. Fully 10,000 negroes followed the flag to Savannah, and many thousands more, chiefly women and children, were turned back at the crossings of rivers.

Sherman appointed Jan. 15, 1865, as the day for beginning his march northward from Savannah. The 17th Corps was sent by water to a point on the Charleston and Savannah Railway, where it seriously menaced Charleston. The left wing, under Slocum, accompanied by Kilpatrick's cavalry, was to have crossed the Savannah on a pontoon bridge at that city; but incessant rains had so flooded the swamps and raised the streams that the army was compelled to cross higher up, and did not effect the passage until the first week in February. Savannah and its dependencies were transferred to General Foster, then in command of the Department of the South, with instructions to co-operate with Sherman's inland movements by occupying, in succession, Charleston and other places. Sherman notified General Grant that it was his intention, after leaving Savannah, "to undertake, at one stride, to make Goldsboro an open communication with the sea by the Newbern Railway. Feints of attacks on Charleston kept Hardee from interfering with Sherman's inland march. Wheeler had been putting obstructions in his pathway to Columbia; but the movements of the Nationals were so mysterious that it distracted the Confederates, who could not determine whether Sherman's objective was Charleston or Augusta.

His invasion produced wide-spread alarm. Sherman's army steadily advanced in the face of every obstacle. They drove the Confederates from their position at Orangeburg and began destroying the railway there. On Feb. 18 they began a march directly to Columbia, the

HEADQUARTERS OF GENERAL SHERMAN IN SAVANNAH.

capital of South Carolina, driving the Confederates before them wherever they appeared. Sherman's march was so rapid that troops for the defence of the capital could not be gathered in time. He was in front of Columbia before any adequate force for its defence appeared. Beauregard was in command there, and had promised much, but did little. On Feb. 17 the Nationals entered Columbia; and on the same day Charleston, flanked, was evacuated by Hardee (see CHARLESTON). The rear guard of the Confederates, under Wade Hampton, on retiring, set fire to cotton in the streets; and the high wind sent the burning fibre into the air, setting fire to the dwellings, and in the course of a few hours that beautiful city was in ruins (see COLUMBIA). Sherman, after destroying the arsenal at Columbia, left the ruined city and pressed on with his forces to Fayetteville, N. C., his cavalry, under Kilpatrick, fighting the Confederate cavalry led by Wheeler many times on the way. He left a black path of desolation through the Carolinas 40 miles in width. Arriving at Fayetteville, Sherman opened communications with the National troops at Wilmington.

General Sherman was promoted major-general United States army, in August, 1864, and lieutenant-general in July, 1866. On March 4, 1869, he succeeded General Grant as general-in-chief of the armies of the United States. He was retired on his own request, Feb. 8, 1884, on full pay. He died in New York City, Feb. 14, 1891.

Sherman Anti-trust Law. The following is the text of this famous piece of national legislation, of which so much has been said and written since its enactment by Congress and approval by the President on July 2, 1900:

SEC. 1. Every contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations is hereby declared to be illegal. Every person who shall make any such contract or engage in any such combination or conspiracy shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding $5,000 or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 2. Every person who shall monopolize or attempt to monopolize or combine or conspire with any person or persons to monopolize any part of the trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by fine not exceeding $5,000 or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 3. Every contract, combination in form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy in restraint of trade or commerce in any Territory of the United States or of the District of Columbia, or in restraint of trade or commerce between any such Territory and another, or between any such Territory or Territories and any State or States or the District of Columbia or with foreign nations, or between the District of Columbia and any State or States or foreign nations, is hereby declared illegal. Every person who shall make any such contract or engage in any such combination or conspiracy shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine not exceeding $5,000 or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 4. The several Circuit Courts of the United States are hereby invested with jurisdiction to prevent or restrain violations of this act; and it shall be the duty of the several district attorneys of the United States, in their respective districts, under the direction of the attorney-general, to institute proceedings in equity to prevent and restrain such violations. Such proceedings may be by way of petition setting forth the case and praying that such violation shall be enjoined or otherwise prohibited. When the parties complained of shall have been duly notified of such petition the court shall proceed, as soon as may be, to the hearing and determination of the case; and pending such petition and before final decree the court may at any time make such temporary restraining order or prohibition as shall be deemed just.

SEC. 5. Whenever it shall appear to the court before which any proceeding

under section 4 of this act may be pending that the ends of justice require that other parties should be brought before the court, the court may cause them to be summoned, whether they reside in the district in which the court is held or not; and subpœnas to that end may be served in any district by the marshall thereof.

SEC. 6. Any property owned under any contract or by any combination or pursuant to any conspiracy (and being the subject thereof) mentioned in section 1 of this act and being in the course of transportation from one State to another or to a foreign country shall be forfeited to the United States and may be seized and condemned by like proceedings as those provided by law for the forfeiture, seizure, and condemnation of property imported into the United States contrary to law.

SEC. 7. Any person who shall be injured in his business or property by any other person or corporation by reason of anything forbidden or declared unlawful by this act may sue therefor in any Circuit Court of the United States in the district in which the defendant resides or is found, without respect to the amount in controversy, and shall recover threefold the damages by him sustained and the cost of suit, including a reasonable attorney's fee.

SEC. 8. That the word "person" or "persons" wherever used in this act be deemed to include corporations and associations existing under or authorized by the laws of either the United States, the laws of any of the Territories, the laws of any State, or the laws of any foreign country.

Authorship of the Law.—In 1911, doubtless owing to the large number of TRUST PROSECUTIONS (*q. v.*) that had been instituted by the government under this law, much interest was aroused concerning its authorship, which had been popularly ascribed to Senator John Sherman, of Ohio, because it bore only his name. This interest led to the publication of several explanations, including *The History of the Sherman Law*, by Albert H. Walker, of New York; a contribution to *The Outlook*, by Francis E. Leupp, of Washington, D. C., and an analytical article in *The North American Review* (December, 1911), by Judge George F. Edmunds, former United States Senator from Vermont, with an historical *Foreword*, by the editor, George Harvey.

From the latter it appears that John Sherman was not the author of the famous law. He merely introduced a bill, of which only the enacting clause, as first drawn, was retained by the Congress. The law, as it now stands upon the statute-books, was drafted by Senator Edmunds, acting as chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary of the Senate. Due credit is given to Senator Sherman for having originated the general plan, and Senator Edmunds modestly declared: "It would be correct to say that nearly every member of the committee was the author of that bill, for my work in drawing it up was merely putting into logical shape what every member of the committee had participated in."

It should be noted here that the Committee of the Judiciary of the Senate then comprised Senators Edmunds (chairman); John J. Ingalls (Kan.); George F. Hoar (Mass.); James F. Wilson (Iowa); William M. Evarts (N. Y.); James L. Pugh (Ala.); Richard Coke (Tex.); George G. Vest (Mo.); and James Z. George (Miss.). Mr. Walker, after personally investigating the records, at first credited the authorship of the law as follows:

"Senator Edmunds wrote all of sections 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6, except seven words in section 1, which seven words were written by Senator Evarts. Those are the words 'in the form of trust or otherwise.' Senator George wrote all of section 4. Senator Hoar wrote all of section 7, and Senator Ingalls was the author of section 8."

Subsequently, Mr. Walker stated that "a comparison of section 4 with the last two sentences of the first section of Senator Sherman's own bill in its second form will show that Senator George only rewrote what Senator Sherman had himself first formulated. And a comparison of section 7 with the original bill of Senator Sherman, and also with the second form of Sherman's own writing, will show that section 7 of the Sherman law was only a rewriting by Senator Hoar of section 2 of each of the drafts of Senator Sherman.

The contributions of Senators Evarts and Ingalls were but expressions of what was implied in other parts of the Judiciary Committee bill.

Intent of the Law.—In his chronological history and exposition of the law, in *The North American Review*, Judge Edmunds explicitly declared that its framers never intended that it should be used as a weapon for the destruction of honest business, but anticipated that the courts would construe it and apply it for the healthful growth of trade, fairly conducted. He said:

"The broad and just policy of the framers of the Constitution was to provide for the protection of trade and commerce with foreign nations and among the several States and monopolies thereof, etc., against the evils that had afflicted the people in the experience of civilized mankind in hydra-headed forms. The Judiciary Committee believed that the well-known principles guiding the courts in the application and construction of statutes would lead them to give the words of the act a beneficial and remedial rather than an injurious and technical one hurtful to any honest trade, as well as out of harmony with the beneficent spirit and policy of the whole act."

And further: "That belief has now, on the whole, been realized. It is believed that no case founded on the act has been finally decided by the courts adversely to the contracts or conduct of parties accused in which such contract or conduct did not offend against both the letter and the spirit of the act, as well as against the sound public policy underlying both the provisions of the Constitution and the Act of Congress touching the subject, while the reserved rights of the several States have been preserved, and aggressions of powerful combinations in various forms and various ways upon weaker enterprises have been denounced, although, unhappily, not yet fully prevented."

The belief of the committee that the courts would give a beneficial and remedial construction of the law was borne out by the action of the United States Supreme Court in deciding the Standard Oil and Tobacco cases in 1911. See TRUSTS.

Sherman Silver Act, passed July 17, 1890. See SILVER LEGISLATION.

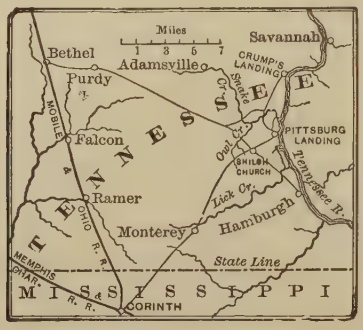
Sherwood, SIDNEY, educator; born in Saratoga county, N. Y., May 28, 1860; graduated at Princeton College in 1879; admitted to the bar in 1885; studied economics, history, and politics at Johns Hopkins University in 1888–91. In 1892 he became associate professor of political economy in that institution. He wrote *History and Theory of Money; The Rates Question in Recent Railway Literature; University of the State of New York; Alliance with England; Tendencies in American Economic Thought; Influence of the Trust in the Development of Undertaking Genius*, etc. He died in Ballston, N. Y., Aug. 6, 1910.

Shields, JAMES, military officer; born in Tyrone county, Ireland, in 1810; emigrated to the United States in 1826, and began the practice of law in Kaskaskia, Ill., in 1832. When the war with Mexico began, President Polk commissioned him a brigadier-general United States army (1847). He was appointed governor of Oregon Territory in 1848. This office he soon resigned, and from 1849 to 1855 he represented Illinois in the United States Senate. He afterwards resided in Minnesota, and was United States Senator from that State from 1858 to 1860, and then went to California. In August, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and performed gallant services in the Shenandoah Valley, receiving a severe wound in the battle of Kernstown. He resigned his commission in March, 1863, and afterwards held several public offices in Missouri. He died in Ottumwa, Ia., June 1, 1879.

Shillaber, BENJAMIN PENHALLOW, author (popularly known as MRS. PARTINGTON); born in Portsmouth, N. H., July 12, 1814. He died in Chelsea, Mass., Nov. 25, 1890.

Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing, BATTLE OF. After the capture of Fort Donelson in 1862, General Grant prepared to push towards Corinth, an important position at the intersection of the Charleston and Memphis, Mobile and Ohio railways. Possession of that point would give the national troops control of the great railway communications between the Mississippi and the East, and the border slave-labor States and the Gulf of Mexico. Passing up the Tennessee River, the main

body of Grant's troops were encamped, at the beginning of April, between Pittsburgh Landing, on that stream, and Shiloh



MAP OF THE SHILOH CAMPAIGN.

Meeting-house, in the forest, 2 miles from the river bank. General Beauregard, under the supreme command of Gen. A. Sidney Johnston, was straining every nerve to resist this movement. He confronted the Nationals near Shiloh Meeting-house, where he was assisted by Generals Polk, Hardee, Bragg, and Breckinridge. With these expert leaders the Confederates had come up from Corinth in a heavy rainstorm, in separate columns, and so stealthily that they were within 4 miles of the National camp before they were discovered by Grant's sentinels. There they halted (April 5) to await the arrival of Van Dorn and Price, who were approaching Memphis with a large force from Central Arkansas.

The Confederate army now numbered about 40,000 men. Grant had made his headquarters at Savannah, on the Tennessee, and he there continued until the first week in April, having very little apprehension of an attack from the Confederates. General Sherman's division was just behind Shiloh Meeting-house. General Prentiss was encamped across the road to Corinth, with General McClernand's division behind his right. Their three divisions formed the advanced line. In the rear, near the river, lay General Hurlbut's division and that of General Smith, under the command of Gen. W. H. L. Wallace, of Illinois. General Stuart's brigade, of Sherman's division, lay on the Hamburg road, and the division of Gen. Lew. Wallace was at Crump's Landing, below Pittsburgh Landing. Such was the

BATTLE OF SHILOH.

disposition of the National army on Sunday morning, April 6. Buell had been marching very tardily across Tennessee in the direction of Corinth. Hearing of his approach, Johnston resolved not to wait for Van Dorn and Price, but to strike the Nationals before Buell's arrival. At a council of war (April 5) that made this decision, Beauregard said: "Gentlemen, we sleep in the enemy's camp to-morrow night."

Almost the first intimation of the near presence of the Confederates was the wild cry of pickets flying into camp, and the sharp attack upon Sherman's troops by Hardee's division, before daylight had fairly appeared. It was a surprise. Screaming shells dashed through the forest and bullets whistled among the tents. The Confederates had rushed into the camp, driving half-dressed, half-armed soldiers before them, dealing death and terror in every direction. Prentiss's division was next attacked; his column was shattered, and he, with a large portion of his followers, were made prisoners, his camp being captured by the Confederates. The struggle soon became general, and for ten hours the battle raged with varying fortune on both sides. Gen. W. H. L. Wallace, of the Nationals, and Gen. A. S. Johnston, of the Confederates, had been killed. On both sides the slaughter was severe, and the National army was pushed back to the river, then brimful with a spring flood. The day was fairly lost to the Union troops. All the Union camps were occupied by the Confederates but one—that of General Wallace, of which General MacArthur was now in command. In the rear of this the smitten army had gathered at twilight, in a space not more than 400 acres in extent, on the verge of the river. They could be pushed back no farther. Beauregard telegraphed to Richmond a shout of victory.

The Nationals were in a most perilous position. A single vigorous blow then given would have justified this shout. Beauregard gave feeble ones that were parried by two gunboats on the river, which had just arrived, and by a hastily formed battery on the shore. That evening the van of Buell's army also appeared on the opposite side of the river; and at midnight, Gen. Lew. Wallace, who had been detained by misinformation, arrived. In the morning twilight (April 7) Wallace's troops opened the battle anew on the Confederate left, where Beauregard commanded in person. Others soon joined in the battle, and it became general all along the line. The Confederates fought gallantly, but were speedily pushed back by a superior force. They halted on the heights of Monterey, covered in their retreat by a rear guard of 12,000 men, led by General Breckinridge. The Confederates had lost over 10,000 men in the engagement and retreat. Fully 3,000 died during the flight to Monterey. The National loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners was about 15,000. Beauregard's shattered army fell back to Corinth, and Grant was about to pursue and capture it, when General Halleck, his superior in rank, came up and took the chief command and caused the army to loiter until the Confederates, recuperated, were ready for another battle.

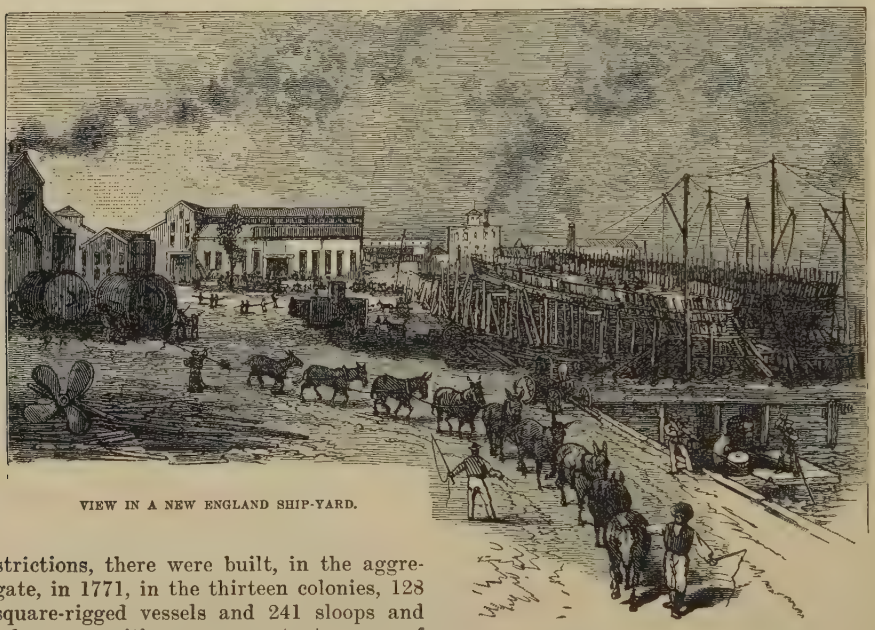
Shimonoseki, JAPAN. On June 25, 1863, the Japanese fired on the American steamer *Pembroke*. The *Wyoming*, U. S. N., attacked the batteries and destroyed two Japanese ships. On Sept. 5, the combined fleet of American, English, French, and Dutch ships destroyed the forts.

Shinplaster, the popular name of American bank-notes, especially of notes for fractional parts of a dollar, issued during the Civil War; also applied to paper money of any kind. This particular designation is said to have been derived from the act of a soldier in the Revolutionary War, who, having a quantity of worthless paper currency, used the pieces as plasters for a wounded leg.

SHIP-BUILDING

Ship-building. This industry began in the United States at the dawn of American commerce, but the restrictions placed upon the commerce of the American colonies (see NAVIGATION ACTS) by Great Britain almost stifled it at its birth. The commerce of the colonies, if left free, would have fostered an extensive business

in ship-building. An English author, in 1670, wrote: "Our American plantations employ nearly two-thirds of our English shipping, and thereby give constant subsistence to, it may be, 200,000 persons here at home." Notwithstanding these restrictions, there were built, in the aggregate, in 1771, in the thirteen colonies, 128 square-rigged vessels and 241 sloops and schooners, with an aggregate tonnage of 24,068. Ship-building had become a very extensive industry in our country when the Civil War (1861–65) broke out. The Anglo-Confederate cruisers drove much of the American carrying-trade into foreign bottoms, and ship-building in the United States was for many years a much-depressed industry; but since 1890 it has been unusually active under the impetus given by the United States government in building its "new navy."



VIEW IN A NEW ENGLAND SHIP-YARD.

Ship-building and commerce in New England was begun at Salem about 1640, when Hugh Peters was active in getting up a company to engage in the fisheries on the Eastern coasts, which had been hitherto carried on extensively by the people of Old England. The General Court made an order that all property engaged in that business should be free from taxation for seven years. Peters was active in promoting the building of vessels; and in the course of two years six large vessels were built, in which voyages were undertaken to Madeira, the Canaries, and soon afterwards to Spain, with cargoes of staves and fish, which found a ready market. These vessels brought back wines, sugar, and dried fruit. So began the career of navigation and commerce which has specially distinguished the New England States. See NAVIGATION ACTS; NAVAL SHIPS; GREAT LAKES AND THE NAVY.

Ship-building on the Lakes.—Henry Sherman Boutell, who was a member of Congress from Illinois in 1897–1911, contributes the following illuminative discussion of the Rush-Bagot convention in its relation to the subject of the building and maintenance of war-ships on the Great Lakes. Mr. Boutell was born in Boston, Mass., March 4, 1856; graduated at Harvard in 1876; admitted to the Illinois bar in 1879; was a member of the Illinois legislature in 1884; and was appointed United States minister to Switzerland in 1911.

In 1815, at the close of the war between the United States and Great Britain,

each country had a considerable naval force on the northern lakes. The reduction of this force was essential to a permanent peace. Nevertheless, in the latter part of the summer of 1815, Mr. John Quincy Adams, our minister to Great Britain, forwarded to this government evidence that Great Britain, instead of disarming her lake fleet, was making plans to increase its size and efficiency. This determination on the part of the British government led Mr. Monroe, our Secretary of State, on Nov. 16, 1815, to write to Mr. Adams instructing him to propose to the British authorities a mutual disarmament on the Great Lakes. Mr. Adams promptly took up the subject with Lord Castlereagh, the British secretary of foreign affairs; but after six months of negotiation with him no conclusion had been reached. By July, 1816, the British minister to the United States, Right Honorable Charles Bagot, had received authority from his government to treat with our Secretary of State relative to disarmament on the lakes.

The method adopted for carrying out the understanding between the two governments was the diplomatic device known as an interchange of notes. On April 28, 1817, Mr. Bagot wrote to Richard Rush, our acting Secretary of State, as follows:

"WASHINGTON, *April 28, 1817.*

"The undersigned, his Britannic Majesty's envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary, has the honor to acquaint Mr. Rush that, having laid before his Majesty's government the correspondence which passed last year between the Secretary of the Department of State and the undersigned upon the subject of a proposal to reduce the naval force of the respective countries upon the American lakes, he has received the commands of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent to acquaint the government of the United States that his Royal Highness is willing to accede to the proposition made to the undersigned by the Secretary of the Department of State in his note of Aug. 2 last.

"His Royal Highness, acting in the name and on the behalf of his Majesty, agrees that the naval force to be maintained upon the American lakes by his Majesty and the government of the United States shall henceforth be confined to the following vessels on each side, that is:

"On Lake Ontario to one vessel not exceeding 100 tons burden and armed with one 18-pounder cannon.

"On the upper lakes to two vessels not exceeding like burden each and armed with like force.

"On the waters of Lake Champlain to one vessel not exceeding like burden and armed with like force.

"And his Royal Highness agrees that all other armed vessels on these lakes shall be forthwith dismantled, and that no other vessels of war shall be there built or armed. His Royal Highness further agrees that if either party should hereafter be desirous of annulling this stipulation, and should give notice to that effect to the other party, it shall cease to be binding after the expiration of six months from the date of such notice.

"The undersigned has it in command from his Royal Highness the Prince Regent to acquaint the American government that his Royal Highness has issued orders to his Majesty's officers on the lakes directing that the naval force so to be limited shall be restricted to such services as will in no respect interfere with the proper duties of the armed vessels of the other party.

"The undersigned has the honor to renew to Mr. Rush the assurances of his highest consideration.

"CHARLES BAGOT."

To this note Mr. Rush sent the following reply on the next day:

"DEPARTMENT OF STATE, *April 29, 1817.*

"The undersigned, acting Secretary of State, has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of Mr. Bagot's note of the 28th of this month, informing him that, having laid before the government of his Britannic Majesty the correspondence which passed between the Secretary of State and himself upon the subject of a proposal to reduce the naval force of the two countries upon the American lakes, he has received the commands of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent to inform this government that his Royal Highness was willing to accede to the proposition made

by the Secretary of State in his note of Aug. 2 last.

"The undersigned has the honor to express to Mr. Bagot the satisfaction which the President feels at his Royal Highness the Prince Regent's having acceded to the proposition of this government as contained in the note alluded to. And in further answer to Mr. Bagot's note, the undersigned, by direction of the President, has the honor to state that this government, cherishing the same sentiments expressed in the note of Aug. 2, agrees that the naval force to be maintained upon the lakes by the United States and Great Britain shall henceforth be confined to the following vessels on each side, that is:

"On Lake Ontario to one vessel not exceeding 100 tons burden, and armed with one 18-pounder cannon. On the upper lakes to two vessels not exceeding the like burden each, and armed with like force, and on the waters of Lake Champlain to one vessel not exceeding like burden and armed with like force.

"And it agrees that all other armed vessels on these lakes shall be forthwith dismantled, and that no other vessels of war shall be there built or armed. And it further agrees that if either party should hereafter be desirous of annulling this stipulation, and should give notice to that effect to the other party, it shall cease to be binding after the expiration of six months from the date of such notice.

"The undersigned is also directed by the President to state that proper orders will be forthwith issued by this government to restrict the naval force thus limited to such services as will in no respect interfere with the proper duties of the armed vessels of the other party.

"The undersigned eagerly avails himself of this opportunity to tender to Mr. Bagot the assurances of his distinguished consideration and respect.

"RICHARD RUSH."

This correspondence constitutes the compact which has been binding upon the two countries for over eighty-four years. By the statesmen and publicists of both countries it has been variously termed an arrangement, agreement, convention, and treaty.

It was nearly a year after the exchange of notes that, on April 6, 1818, President Monroe submitted to the Senate the correspondence between Mr. Rush and Mr. Bagot. Ten days later the Senate, by the unanimous vote of thirty Senators, approved the agreement, and, on April 28, the President published it in a proclamation.

It does not appear that the action of Mr. Bagot was ever formally confirmed by his government, and no exchange of ratifications took place. But we assumed that Mr. Bagot had full power and authority to bind his government, and Great Britain has acted on the assumption that Mr. Rush was duly authorized and empowered to contract on behalf of the United States. The agreement, therefore, although concluded in an unconventional manner, and partaking of none of the ordinary characteristics of a formal treaty, must be considered as possessing all the binding force and effect of a treaty. As such it has been, since April 29, 1817, a part of the supreme law of the land.

The agreement became immediately operative upon the interchange of notes, and the work of dismantling the fleets was promptly begun. In a short time the victorious ships of Perry and Macdonough were rotting on the sands, or had been converted into peaceful merchantmen.

I.

A knowledge of the environment of the contracting parties is essential to an intelligent interpretation of every contract. The conditions which surrounded the framers of this convention differed so radically from the conditions which exist to-day, that a literal compliance with the terms of the agreement is little less than absurd, inasmuch as it often produces results which were not intended, or even contemplated, by the parties.

In 1817 the navies of the United States and Great Britain on the lakes were about evenly matched, and numbered some twenty-five wooden vessels each. No iron or steel vessels then existed, and steam had not yet been used in ships-of-war. There was no communication for vessels from one lake to another, except from Lake Erie to Lake Huron, and from Lake Huron to Lake Michigan, and there was no passage

from the lakes to the ocean. The Welland Canal was not opened for small vessels until 1833, and the chain of St. Lawrence canals was not completed until 1848. The shores of the lower lakes were sparsely settled, and the region of the upper lakes was an unexplored wilderness inhabited by savages. The chain of lakes was the only pathway of commerce to the West and Northwest. The war had left the Americans and Canadians along the border in bad humor and not at all disposed to treat one another in a neighborly manner. The presence on the lakes of large fleets of armed vessels, recently opposed to each other, hindered a reconciliation and the establishment of friendly commercial intercourse.

These were the conditions which existed when Secretary Monroe wrote to Mr. Adams, in November, 1815. The thought that was uppermost in the minds of the framers of the convention was the necessity for the immediate removal of the greatest obstacle to a good understanding between the two countries by the disarmament of the naval force on the lakes. Their main object was to secure a present reduction of the existing force. They were less concerned about the more remote future. This is apparent from the correspondence which preceded and constituted the agreement. The subject under consideration was the "Proposal to reduce the naval force of the respective countries on the American lakes." Of this force four vessels were to be "maintained," or "retained," by each party, and all other armed vessels were forthwith to be dismantled.

Three facts are especially to be noted in connection with the terms of the agreement.

First. Except for the four vessels agreed upon, no other vessels of war were to be "maintained," "built" or "armed" on the lakes. As there was no navigable connection between the lakes, or between Lake Ontario and the ocean, when Mr. Bagot and Mr. Rush used these terms, they understood that a vessel could not be maintained upon the lakes unless it had been built there, and that a vessel could not be armed or built on the lakes and maintained elsewhere. They did not contemplate a time when vessels larger than the largest war-ships with which they were then familiar could pass to and fro between the ocean and the headwaters of Michigan and Superior. From their point of view, to build on the lakes was to maintain on the lakes.

Second. The only restriction that Mr. Bagot in his note specifically places upon the vessels to be maintained by each power is that they shall "in no respect interfere with the proper duties of the armed vessels of the other party." He does, however, state in the first paragraph of his note that "his Royal Highness is willing to accede to the proposition made to the undersigned by the Secretary of the Department of State in his note of Aug. 2 last." Now, a part of Secretary Monroe's proposition was that the naval force to be retained by each party should be restricted in its duty "to the protection of its revenue laws, the transportation of troops and goods, and to such other services as will in no respect interfere with the armed vessels of the other party." It was clearly the intention that the four vessels agreed upon should be the only armed ships maintained by either government on the lakes for any purpose.

Third. The agreement makes no provision for any temporary deviations from the strict letter of the contract. It takes no account of the necessities of civil war, or of the duty of each party to maintain the neutrality of its own citizens.

As an arrangement for immediate mutual disarmament, the convention was effective and beneficial to both parties. It was a distinct aid in bringing about a better feeling between the people along the border. It stimulated commerce on the lakes and encouraged settlement along their shores. The agreement worked smoothly during the first twenty years of its life. It injured no one and was of undeniable advantage to both parties. By the end of twenty years it probably had done all that its framers expected of it, and, in the opinion of many, it had accomplished all the good of which it was capable.

II.

Changed conditions and unforeseen events speedily demonstrated that a literal compliance with the agreement was im-

practicable, and might be suicidal. Great Britain first felt the necessity of transgressing the letter of the contract. During the revolution in Canada of 1838 the British authorities increased their naval armament on the lakes beyond the limits fixed in the agreement, for the purpose of defending their shores from the incursions of small bands of so-called "Canadian patriots."

This increase of the naval force led our Secretary of State, Mr. Forsyth, to remonstrate to Mr. Fox, the British minister. Mr. Fox replied that the increase was made necessary in consequence of unlawful and piratical acts of hostility; that the armament was equipped for the sole purpose of guarding her Majesty's province against a manifest and acknowledged danger, and that it would be discontinued at the earliest possible period after the causes which created the danger had ceased to exist. This reply satisfied Mr. Forsyth for a year, when he again called the attention of Mr. Fox to the matter and suggested that, the causes for the increase in the armament having ceased to exist, the President expected that the British force would be reduced to the limits fixed by the convention.

This reminder of her treaty obligations did not deter Great Britain from laying plans for a still further increase in her naval force on the lakes. This action brought forth a protest from Mr. Webster, who had become Secretary of State. In replying to Mr. Webster's notes, Mr. Fox stated that the vessels of war serving on the Canadian lakes were equipped for the sole purpose of guarding her Majesty's province against hostile attack. With a touch of sarcasm he added that the hostile incursions with which Canada was threatened were from combinations of armed men unlawfully organized and prepared for war in the United States, in defiance of the efforts of the government to prevent them. The explanation made by Mr. Fox apparently satisfied Mr. Webster, although he had originally insisted upon a rigid compliance with the terms of the convention.

In the mean time Congress had done something besides protest. The fortification act of Sept. 9, 1841, contained a clause authorizing the construction and armament of such vessels on the lakes as the President might think proper, and such as should "be authorized by the existing stipulations between this and the British government." Under this authority the iron side-wheel bark *Michigan* was built at Pittsburg and taken in sections to Erie, where she was completed and launched in the summer of 1844. She registered 498 tons and carried two 8-inch guns and four 32-pounder carronades.

It was now Great Britain's turn to remonstrate. All immediate necessity for increasing her navy had disappeared, and so her minister, Mr. Packenham, conveyed to Secretary Calhoun his conviction that it was by all means desirable that the convention of 1817 should be fulfilled to the letter by both contracting parties. Mr. Calhoun's reply merely refers to an enclosed note of the Secretary of the Navy, to whom he had referred Mr Packenham's communication. The reasons given by Mr. Mason, Secretary of the Navy, for our violation of the agreement were that Great Britain was violating the agreement, and that the methods of naval construction had greatly changed since 1817. On the latter point he wisely said: "It is worthy of remark that at the date of the agreement between the two governments steamers were in use to a very limited extent as passenger vessels, and perhaps not at all as ships-of-war. The restriction as to tonnage would probably not have been adopted if their use had been anticipated. No effective steamer for any purpose, it is believed, would be built of a tonnage of 100 tons."

Either the British ministry took thirteen years to consider and digest this suggestion, or the *Michigan* kept out of sight of British officers during that time, for it was not until 1857 that she attracted the attention of Lord Napier. He describes her as a revenue cruiser of the burden of 800 tons, and ventures to suggest to Mr. Cass that it would be expedient for him to inquire whether his government is complying with the treaty of 1817. There is no record of any written reply to Lord Napier's note.

For the next four years the *Michigan* again seems to have escaped attention. In August, 1861, Lord Lyons wrote to Secretary Seward that he had been instructed

to represent to the United States government that the armament of the *Michigan* would seem to be in excess of the limit stipulated in the agreement of 1817. Mr. Seward replied, giving the exact tonnage and armament of the *Michigan*, and stating that she was then, as theretofore, used exclusively for the purpose of recruiting the navy, with artillery practice for the newly recruited men. He said: "It is not supposed by this government that their retaining of the steamer in question upon the lakes is a violation of their arrangement of 1817. But if the British government thinks otherwise, we shall be happy to consider its views in that respect."

Up to the present time the British government has not accepted this invitation or presented its views. The subject of the armament and tonnage of the *Michigan* has not occupied the British ministry for forty years. During that time this vessel has been prudently repaired and has survived in good condition the shot and shell of sixty years of diplomatic correspondence. Even now, in quiet weather, this venerable craft may still be seen proudly but slowly bearing the American flag over the calm waters of the Great Lakes as she goes about her hydrographic task of surveying the scenes of her former triumphs.

We come now to the most interesting and critical period in the life of the Rush-Bagot convention. During the Civil War the United States found herself involved in a difficulty similar to that which embarrassed Great Britain during the Canadian Revolution of 1838. In 1864, Confederate sympathizers organized on Canadian soil for the purpose of making depredations on the commerce of the lakes and hostile incursions into the Northern States. To suppress these demonstrations it became necessary to increase our naval force on the lakes. June 18, 1864, the House of Representatives passed a resolution directing that notice should be given to abrogate the convention of 1817. The Senate did not consider the resolution at that session. In commenting upon the action of the House of Representatives, Lord Lyons wrote to Secretary Seward that Great Britain would view the abrogation of the agreement "with great regret and no little alarm." The United States, however, was not so much concerned about the alarms and regrets of Great Britain as she was about her own self-preservation.

On Oct. 24, 1864, Secretary Seward, acting under instructions from the President, wrote to Charles Francis Adams, our minister to England, instructing him to give to Earl Russell the six months' notice necessary to terminate the convention. Mr. Adams gave this notice Nov. 23, 1864.

It will be noted that the executive department acted in this matter, without any authority from Congress. It assumed the right to annul the convention without legislative action. Jan. 17, 1865, Senator Sumner, chairman of the committee on foreign relations, reported to the Senate, with an amendment, the resolution which had passed the House at its last session. On the next day the resolution passed the Senate. On Feb. 4 the amendment was agreed to by the House, and, on Feb. 9, the resolution was approved and signed by the President in the following form:

"Joint resolution to terminate the treaty of eighteen hundred and seventeen, regulating the naval force on the lakes.

"Whereas the United States, of the one part, and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, of the other part, by a treaty bearing date April, eighteen hundred and seventeen, have regulated the naval force upon the lakes, and it was further provided that 'if either party should hereafter be desirous of annulling this stipulation and should give notice to that effect to the other party, it shall cease to be binding after the expiration of six months from the date of such notice'; and whereas the peace of our frontier is now endangered by hostile expeditions against the commerce of the lakes and by other acts of lawless persons, which the naval force of the two countries, allowed by the existing treaty, may be insufficient to prevent; and whereas, further, the President of the United States has proceeded to give the notice required for the termination of the treaty by a communication which took effect on the twenty-third of November, eighteen hundred and sixty-four: Therefore,

"Be it resolved by the Senate and

House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that the notice given by the President of the United States to the government of Great Britain and Ireland to terminate the treaty of eighteen hundred and seventeen, regulating the naval force upon the lake, is hereby adopted and ratified as if the same had been authorized by Congress.

"Approved, Feb. 9, 1865."

Secretary Seward, Senator Sumner, both Houses of Congress, and President Lincoln called this convention a treaty, so that there is ample justification for giving it that title. As a treaty it was a part of the supreme law of the land. As a law of the land it was repealed by this joint resolution of Congress. Such action certainly would have been a death-blow to any other treaty, but the Rush-Bagot convention still survives. It was resuscitated in this remarkable manner:

As the final triumph of the Federal arms became certain, the attitude of Great Britain towards the United States changed, and the unfriendly manifestations along our northern border ceased. On March 8, 1865, Secretary Seward wrote to Mr. Adams: "You may say to Lord Russell that we are quite willing that the convention should remain practically in force."

No record has been found of any communication to the British authorities by Mr. Adams of his instructions. He may have conveyed them orally at an informal interview, but it is strange that he made no report of his action to his government. The notice given by Mr. Adams, Nov. 23, 1864, would have terminated the agreement May 23, 1865.

June 15, 1865, Sir Frederick Bruce, who had succeeded Lord Lyons as British minister, wrote to Mr. Hunter, acting Secretary of State, inquiring whether the agreement of 1817 was virtually at an end, or whether the despatch to Mr. Adams of March 8 was intended as a formal withdrawal of the notice of Nov. 23, 1864. Secretary Seward replied in writing to these inquiries the next day that the instruction to the United States minister at London of March 8, 1865, "was intended as a withdrawal of the previous notice within the time allowed, and that it is so held by this government." This is probably the only instance where an act of Congress has been set aside through instructions issued by our Secretary of State to one of our foreign ministers. It is not a legislative precedent that is likely to meet with the approval of modern Congresses, although it has been considered effective by the governments of the United States and Great Britain.

Notwithstanding the passage by Congress of the joint resolution of 1865, the Rush-Bagot convention still exerts its neutralizing influence upon the waters of the Great Lakes, to the manifest satisfaction of the diplomatists of both countries, and with equally manifest injustice to the ship-builders and naval militia of the lake States. In April, 1890, F. W. Wheeler & Co., ship-builders of West Bay City, Mich., were the lowest bidders for the construction of a steel practice vessel for the Naval Academy, of about 800 tons displacement. Their bid was rejected on account of the agreement of 1817, and the contract was awarded to another firm, whose bid was $5,000 in excess of that of the Michigan firm. Other similar bids of lake ship-builders have been rejected by the Navy Department on the same ground. The department now rejects all bids for the construction of naval vessels on the lakes, even when they are to be taken unarmed to the ocean, or in sections to Atlantic ship-yards for completion.

This action on the part of the government led to the presentation in Congress of numerous petitions for the abrogation or modification of the agreement. On April 11, 1892, the Senate passed a resolution directing the Secretary of State to inform the Senate whether the State Department considered the agreement of 1817 in force, and, if so, what action had been taken to revive it after the passage of the joint resolution of 1865. In response to this resolution, President Harrison sent to the Senate, Dec. 7, 1892, a message containing a most interesting and exhaustive account by Mr. John W. Foster, Secretary of State, of the birth, life, death, resuscitation and accomplishments of the Rush-Bagot convention. In reply to the inquiry whether the department considered the agreement still in

force, he said: "The correspondence exchanged in 1865 shows that it is so regarded." He assumes that Mr. Adams communicated to the British ministry the instruction of our Secretary of State to withdraw the notice terminating the agreement, and explains that Great Britain could not question Secretary Seward's power to make such a withdrawal. To sustain the Secretary's action was commendable international courtesy, good statesmanship, and sound policy. Whether Secretary Seward's action in committing his government to the revival of a treaty, the abrogation of which Congress had ratified and approved, was good statesmanship and sound policy may well be questioned.

At the second session of the Fifty-sixth Congress the writer introduced in the House of Representatives a bill authorizing the construction and maintenance of a gunboat on the upper lakes. The object of the bill was to secure a modern vessel for the training of the naval militia. Three of the lake States had thoroughly organized companies of naval reserves, but most of the members of this force had never seen a modern war-ship. This bill was referred to the committee on naval affairs and included as an item in the naval appropriation bill of 1898, with the proviso "that said construction of said gunboat shall conform to all existing treaties and conventions.

On April 16, 1898, immediately upon the passage of this act, the Secretary of the Navy addressed to the Secretary of State an inquiry whether he would be limited by any restrictions as to armament and tonnage in the construction of a gunboat for the lakes. To this Secretary Day replied, July 1, 1898, that the subject was one of the matters to come before the joint high commission on questions affecting the relations between the United States and Canada.

Jan. 15, 1900, the House of Representatives passed a resolution requesting the Secretary of State to communicate to the House the status of this agreement between the United States and Great Britain. Feb. 27, 1900, President McKinley transmitted to the House a message containing a report of Secretary Hay in response to this resolution. Mr. Hay includes in his report the message of President Harrison of Dec. 7, 1892.

From Mr. Hay's report it appears that, on May 30, 1898, the United States and Great Britain agreed upon the creation of a joint high commission, to which should be referred for settlement various pending questions between the United States and Canada, among which was "a revision of the agreement of 1817 respecting naval vessels on the lakes." The American commissioners were instructed to secure a declaration that it was not contrary to the true spirit of the arrangement of 1817 to build war-vessels on the lakes to be taken to the ocean, or to maintain gunboats on the lakes for the training of the naval reserves. They were also instructed to arrange with Great Britain for the passage of such vessels through the Canadian canals.

The Secretary's report concludes with these words: "It is understood that some satisfactory progress was made in the joint high commission towards the attainment of these ends, but the labors of the commission have been suspended without reaching a definite result." And so, with the suspension of the labors of the commission, the construction of the gunboat authorized by Congress three years ago is also suspended, and the Rush-Bagot convention still survives.

Before passing from this phase of the subject it should be noted that we have for many years maintained on the lakes armed revenue-cutters exceeding the tonnage and armament prescribed in the agreement of 1817. In 1857, and again in 1865, Great Britain raised the point that our action in this respect was in violation of the agreement. It certainly is a departure from the views entertained by the framers of the convention. Our revenue-cutter service is under the Treasury Department, and we have replied to the several remonstrances of Great Britain that the revenue-cutters were not naval vessels and were used exclusively for enforcing the revenue laws. This explanation has so far sufficed, although our revenue-cutters are always available for use by the navy in time of war. Many of the revenue-cutters in service on the Atlantic coast and the Gulf of Mexico

were used by the naval commanders during the recent conflict with Spain.

III.

It only remains to consider what attitude the United States should assume towards this convention in the future. The convention reserves to both parties the right to abrogate the agreement upon giving six months' notice, and, therefore, may be honorably terminated at any time by either of the parties. Shall we continue the present arrangement and keep up the pretence of complying with the spirit while persistently violating the letter of the agreement? Or shall we seek to secure such modifications of the contract as will make it conform to present conditions and meet the probable requirements of the future? Or shall we abrogate the agreement altogether?

As we have seen, the prime object of the convention was immediate disarmament. In securing this object it was, and has since been, an encouragement to peace and good-will. It conferred no power on either party, and it imposed equal restraints on them both. At that time neither party could put gunboats upon the lakes without building them there. This is still true of the United States, unless she obtains the consent of Great Britain to use her canals. Great Britain, on the other hand, can put upon the lakes all of her war-vessels that can pass the Canadian locks. In time of peace, therefore, the convention places a restraint upon the action of Great Britain. This restraint would continue until the commencement of hostilities, or a declaration of war, so that, even if the relations between the two countries should become strained and war should seem imminent, Great Britain could not put a hostile fleet on the lakes until some act of belligerency had taken place.

If, however, this restriction on the power of Great Britain should be removed by the abrogation of the convention, Great Britain could, at any time, in anticipation of trouble with the United States, place on the lakes a formidable naval force. We could only be prepared for such an emergency by maintaining on the lakes a force sufficient to cope with the fleet which Great Britain could send through the canals.

The locks of the Welland and St. Lawrence canals are 270 feet long, 45 feet wide, and 14 feet deep. Great Britain now has afloat 130 gunboats, 169 torpedo-boats, and 108 destroyers, which could pass from the ocean to the lakes. In case of war, therefore, the convention would seem to be an advantage to the United States. It is devoutly to be hoped that there will never be another war between the United States and Great Britain, either with or without the Rush-Bagot convention; but it seems unreasonable to suppose that the abrogation of the agreement would make any perceptible difference in the present cordial relations between the two countries. The ties of friendship and commerce are now too strong to be lightly severed, or even strained, without just cause.

What are the disadvantages to the United States of the present arrangement? It should be noted at the outset that they all arise from conditions which did not exist when the convention was agreed to, and could hardly have been anticipated by its framers.

In the first place, it debars the ship-builders on the lakes from competing for the construction of such government war-vessels as can pass the Canadian canals. This is a discrimination against a large and important industry which should not be tolerated except for the most urgent reasons. The American Ship - building Company now has nine plants on the lakes, located at West Superior, Milwaukee, Chicago, Bay City, Detroit, Wyandotte, Buffalo, Cleveland, and Lorraine. There are three other yards on the lakes, at Bay City, Port Huron, and Toledo. Owing to their proximity to the coal and iron deposits, all these lake ship-yards can compete successfully with any of the yards in this country or elsewhere. They have built several light-ships and other vessels for the Treasury Department, and have been, as we have seen, the lowest bidders for some of the naval vessels. The government is thus a loser as well by being deprived of the competition of these lake yards.

The United States suffers a still more serious loss, which is forcibly alluded to

by the Secretary of the Navy in his letter of April 16, 1898:

"This inquiry is prompted by the further consideration that it was doubtless not at all within the contemplation of the understanding of 1817 that the national resources in naval construction should be materially diminished thereby, as they are at present through the exclusion of the facilities afforded by establishments in the lake cities. These establishments might in emergency render important service in the construction of torpedo-boats and other small vessels, which, with the concurrence of the British authorities, could be taken through the Welland Canal and placed in commission for sea service as promptly as would be possible if they were built on the Atlantic seaboard."

A strict adherence to the letter of the convention also excludes the lake yards from the construction of naval vessels for other countries at peace with the United States and Great Britain. It will be seen, therefore, that the United States, by continuing in force this international agreement, deprives twelve private American ship-yards of great advantages which are enjoyed by all other yards in the country. What prospect of national gain would now induce the President to make, or the Senate to ratify, a treaty which would shut out from the construction of all naval vessels twelve other private American ship-yards on the Atlantic or Pacific coasts?

The convention of 1817 prevents the efficient training of a large part of our naval militia. We now have over 5,000 officers and men organized in eighteen States and the District of Columbia. Of this number 1,000 are in Illinois, Michigan, and Ohio. It is a disadvantage to the government and an injustice and discouragement to these naval reserves to be deprived of the same practice on a modern gunboat that is enjoyed by the reserves in the seaboard States.

In concluding this enumeration of the disadvantages to the United States of adhering to the agreement of 1817, attention must be drawn to the position in which the United States would now be placed in case of a war with Great Britain, although I do not take much account of the possibilities of war between the two countries. War ends all treaties between the belligerents. In anticipation of hostilities, Great Britain could concentrate on the upper St. Lawrence a powerful naval force ready for operation on the lakes upon the declaration of war. Our most efficient method of opposing this force would be by land batteries commanding the upper St. Lawrence and the waters connecting the lakes. With or without this convention we shall always be at a disadvantage in a conflict with Great Britain on the lakes until we have constructed a waterway through our own territory from the ocean to the lakes of sufficient size to admit the passage of vessels as large as those which can pass through the Canadian canals.

A careful study of the history of the Rush-Bagot convention, and an impartial estimate of the advantages and disadvantages accruing to the United States from an adherence to its terms, as now interpreted, lead to the conclusion that the loss to the United States outweighs the gain; that it is to the interest of both parties to make a new arrangement respecting naval armaments on the lakes; that the agreement of 1817 is obsolete and not fit for the foundation of an international understanding; that a treaty should be made between the United States and Great Britain which would expressly annul the Rush-Bagot convention and settle the questions of armament and naval construction on the lakes in conformity with modern conditions.

TRAFFIC IN SAULT STE. MARIE CANAL.

	1908.	1909.	1910.
Steamers	12,553	16,463	17,674
Sailing vessels	1,355	1,787	1,890
Unregistered	1,273	984	1,335
Total	15,685	19,204	20,899
Net registered tonnage	31,091,730	46,751,717	49,856,123
Net freight tonnage	41,390,557	57,895,149	62,363,218
Passengers, number	53,287	59,948	66,933

For the purpose of comparison the following statistics are given:

During the year 1910, the Suez Canal, which cost over $100,000,000, had a tonnage of 23,054,901; the Manchester and Liverpool Canal, which cost $110,000,000, a tonnage of 8,000,000; the Kaiser Wilhelm canal, which cost $40,000,000, a ton-

nage of 6,267,805. This canal is now being enlarged at an expense of $50,000,000.

Note by Editor.—During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1910, 1,361 vessels of 342,068 gross tons were built and documented in the United States. These included eighteen steel steamers of 78,845 gross tons for the sea-board service and twenty-seven similar vessels of 142,521 gross tons for the Great Lakes service. On the above date the merchant marine of the United States, including all kinds of documented shipping, comprised 25,740 vessels of 7,508,082 gross tons, and the American tonnage registered for the foreign trade amounted to 782,517 gross tons, the smallest amount in seventy years, except for 1898. During the fiscal year 1909–10, American ships carried 8.7 per cent. of our exports and imports, the smallest percentage in our history, except in 1901.

Ship-Canals. In America the canals connecting the Great Lakes and that connecting the Hudson River with Long Island Sound at the upper end of Manhattan Island, New York City, are the principal ship-canals. The former are three in number: the Welland Canal, originally constructed in 1853 and enlarged in 1871 and 1900; the Sault Ste. Marie, or St. Mary's River Canal, opened in 1855 and enlarged in 1897; and the Canadian canal at St. Mary's River, opened in 1895. The American and Canadian canals at St. Mary's Falls are practically identical in location and dimensions, and are used interchangeably by vessels engaged in commerce, as convenience may dictate. The depth of the canals at the St. Mary's River is sufficient to accommodate vessels drawing 20 feet of water. The American Canal was originally constructed by the State of Michigan, but subsequently was taken charge of by the United States and enlarged at a cost of $2,150,000. The cost of the Welland Canal was about $30,000,000, largely due to the fact that 25 locks are required in surmounting the rise of 327 feet in the distance of 27 miles. The number of vessels passing through the St. Mary's Canal increased eleven times between 1873 and 1900, while the number passing through the Welland Canal, between Lakes Erie and Ontario, decreased nearly one-half. The Harlem River Ship-canal cost about $2,700,000, and was opened for traffic June 17, 1895. The Port Arthur Ship-canal, connecting Sabine Lake, in Texas, with the Gulf of Mexico, was opened March 25, 1899; the Cape Cod Canal, connecting Massachusetts and Buzzards bays, July 29, 1914; the Panama Canal, Aug. 19, 1914; and the Dalles-Celilo Canal, in Oregon and Washington, May 3, 1915.

Lake traffic, carrying grain and ore from the source of supply at the head of the Great Lakes to the place of demand at the foot, was able to compete successfully with railroad carriage. About 1876 lake rates from Duluth to Buffalo were only one-twenty-sixth the all-rail rates. The character of the goods, being in bulk and not requiring speedy transportation, was favorable to water transit. Contract rates for carrying ore ranged in 1887 from $1.20 to $3.05 per ton, bringing large returns to vessel owners. In that year forty-seven vessels were added to the lake fleet at a cost of $6,000,000, reviving the inland ship-building industry. Vessels carrying ore averaged in 1872 about 650 tons; in 1889 ore-vessels of 2,800 tons capacity were constructed, considered marvels at the time, but insignificant in comparison with later vessels of 10,000 tons capacity, loaded by machinery in an hour and a half. Under these conditions the price of pig-iron fell from $46 per ton in 1866 to $28 in 1880, and to $11 before the end of the century.

Shipp, Albert Micajah, educator; born in Stokes county, N. C., Jan. 15, 1819; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1840; ordained a Methodist preacher in 1841; connected with Greensboro Female College, 1848; University of North Carolina, 1849; Wolford College, 1859; Vanderbilt University, 1875; author of *Methodism in South Carolina.* He died in Cleveland Springs, N. C., June 27, 1887.

Shipp, Barnard, author; born at Natchez, Miss., April 30, 1813. He wrote *The Progress of Freedom; De Soto and Florida; The Indians and Antiquities of America;* and translated Garcilosso's *Conquest of Florida.*

Shippen, William, physician; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 21, 1736; grad-

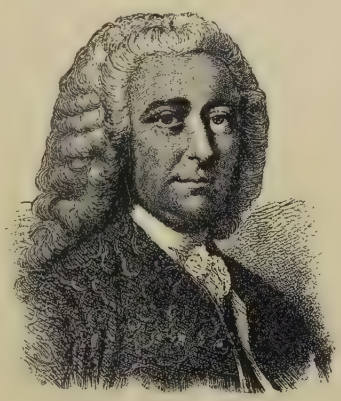
uated at Princeton in 1754; studied medicine in London and Edinburgh, and began its practice in Philadelphia in 1762. In the autumn of that year he began the first course of anatomical lectures ever given in the United States. In 1765 he was chosen Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in the new medical school of the College of Philadelphia, of which he was the founder. In 1776 he entered the medical department of the army, and, from April, 1777, to January, 1781, was its director-general. He withdrew from the practice of his profession in 1798, and died in Germantown, Pa., July 11, 1808.

Shiras, GEORGE, jurist; born in Pittsburg, Pa., Jan. 26, 1832; graduated at Yale College in 1853, and after studying at the Yale Law School was admitted to the bar of Pennsylvania in 1856. He was engaged in private practice in the courts of Pennsylvania till July, 1892, when he was appointed associate justice of the United States Supreme Court to succeed Joseph P. Bradley; retired in 1903.

Shirley, JOHN MILTON, lawyer; born in Sanbornton, N. H., Nov. 16, 1831; received an academic education; was admitted to the bar in 1854. His publications include *The Early Jurisprudence of New Hampshire; Complete History of the Dartmouth College Case; Reports of Cases in the Supreme Judicial Court;* and *Reports of Cases in the Superior Court of Judicature,* etc. He died in Andover, N. H., May 21, 1887.

Shirley, PAUL, naval officer; born in Kentucky, Dec. 19, 1820; joined the navy in 1839; promoted lieutenant in 1853; served with distinction in the Civil War. In 1863, while in command of the sloop *Cyane,* he captured the *J. M. Chapman,* a piratical cruiser, and later, while commanding the *Survanel,* captured the piratical steamer *Colon.* He died in Columbus, O., Nov. 24, 1876.

Shirley, WILLIAM, colonial governor; born in Sussex, England, in 1693; was educated for the law; came to Boston in 1734, where he practised his profession. At the time he was appointed governor (1741) he was a commissioner for the settlement of the boundary between Massachusetts and Rhode Island. As governor he was superior to his contemporaries in the same office in America. He planned the expedition against Louisburg in 1745; and was appointed one of the commissioners at Paris (1750) for settling the limits of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, and other controverted rights of the English



WILLIAM SHIRLEY.

and French in America. In 1754 he made a treaty with the Eastern Indians and explored the Kennebec, erecting some forts upon its banks. In 1755 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America. The expedition against Fort Niagara was planned by him, and led as far as Oswego. In 1759 he was commissioned a lieutenant-general. He was governor of one of the Bahama Islands afterwards, but returned to Massachusetts in 1770 and built a spacious mansion at Roxbury, which he never occupied, dying the next year after his arrival there, March 24, 1771.

Short, CHARLES, educator; born in Haverhill, Mass., May 28, 1821; graduated at Harvard College in 1846; was instructor in Roxbury and Philadelphia in 1847–63; president and Professor of Intellectual and Moral Philosophy in Kenyon College, Ohio, in 1863–67; and became Professor of Latin in Columbia College, New York, in 1868. He contributed many articles to periodicals. He died in New York, Dec. 24, 1886.

Short, WILLIAM, diplomatist; born in Spring Garden, Va., Sept. 30, 1759; was educated at the College of William and Mary; became a member of the Virginia executive council while very young; and

in 1784 accompanied Jefferson to France as secretary of legation. In 1789 Washington appointed him *chargé d'affaires* to the French Republic on the retirement of Jefferson from his post in France. This was the first commission signed by President Washington, and Short had the honor of being the first public officer appointed under the national Constitution. He was successively minister resident at The Hague and minister to Spain. He died in Philadelphia, Dec. 5, 1849.

Short Ballot, a ballot suggested for general use in political elections by the exercise of the elective franchise by reducing the list of offices to be filled to the fewest practicable number, and demonstrated in the municipal elections of cities that have adopted the commission form of government. The advocates of the reform assert, with respect to the ordinary or long ballot:

First: It submits to popular elections offices which are too unimportant to attract (or deserve) public attention, and,

Second: It submits to popular election so many offices at one time that many of them are inevitably crowded out from proper public attention; and,

Third: It submits to popular election so many offices at one time that the business of making up the elaborate tickets necessary at every election makes the political machine an indispensable instrument in electoral action.

Many officials, therefore, it is claimed, are elected without adequate public scrutiny, and owe their selection not to the people, but to the makers of the party ticket, who thus acquire an influence that is capable of great abuse.

The principles of the short ballot are:

First: That only those offices should be elective which are important enough to attract (and deserve) public examination.

Second: That very few offices should be filled by election at one time, so as to permit adequate and unconfused public examination of the candidates.

Obedience to these fundamental principles, it is urged, explains the comparative success of democratic government in the cities of Great Britain and other foreign democracies, as well as in Galveston, Des Moines, and other American cities that are governed by "commissions."

The short-ballot principle has been commended by many influential political scientists, and its application is urged in city, county, and State elections alike. The short-ballot organization has its headquarters at 383 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

Another form of the short ballot is the commission form of government.

Commission Form of Government.— The main features of the commission form of government, after comparing the various plans in operation in Iowa, Kansas, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Mississippi, Kentucky, Illinois, South Carolina, Louisiana, and other commonwealths, are the following:

1. The governing body is made up of a small number of members. The usual number is five. Three is the next most common number, occurring most frequently in the smaller cities. Other places have from four to nine. The Illinois act calls for five commissioners and the Wisconsin law for three.

2. Wards as election units are abolished. Each commissioner is voted for by all the electors and is responsible to the entire city rather than to a section of it. Under this arrangement each voter wields more power, as he votes for all the commissioners instead of for one or two of a large number of aldermen. Better men are elected, and the influence of a bad ward is less than when it is represented by its own special alderman.

3. Ample powers are conferred upon the commission. By this is meant that it exercises not only the usual ordinance-making power, but it also oversees the administrative departments of the city and appoints the officers. In other words, it decides by ordinance what shall be done, appoints the men to do it—department subordinates and employés—and sees that it is done.

4. Each commissioner is assigned to be the head of a definite department, for the conduct of which he is responsible to the commission, and to some extent directly to the people. Commissioners do not look after the details of their departments; they have superintendents who do this under their direction. In most commission charters it is provided that the mayor shall be one of the council, voting,

but not having the veto power. He usually presides at meetings, signs ordinances, contracts, and warrants on the treasury and performs other ministerial acts.

5. Control by the people is insured by means of the following checks: (*a*) Publicity of proceedings, ordinances (including franchises), and of the general and financial condition of the city; (*b*) the referendum; (*c*) the initiative; (*d*) the recall; (*e*) non-partisan primary and election methods; (*f*) a civil-service commission. Nearly every commission charter has one or more of these checks.

The commission form of government has been adopted (1912) by 8 cities in Alabama, 9 in California, 2 in Colorado, 1 in Idaho, 17 in Illinois, 7 in Iowa, 24 in Kansas, 1 in Kentucky, 1 in Louisiana, 1 in Maine, 1 in Maryland, 4 in Massachusetts, 4 in Michigan, 2 in Minnesota, 2 in Mississippi, 1 in Montana, 1 in Nebraska, 5 in New Jersey, 1 in Mexico, 3 in North Carolina, 3 in North Dakota, 15 in Oklahoma, 1 in Oregon, 1 in Pennsylvania, 1 in South Carolina, 11 in South Dakota, 3 in Tennessee, 16 in Texas, 5 in Utah, 6 in Washington, 3 in West Virginia, 2 in Wisconsin, 1 in Wyoming.

Short Hills, N. J., a range of low hills near Springfield, N. J., where the Americans were encamped in 1780 and from which they descended to fight the British under General Kuyphausen. See SPRINGFIELD, BATTLE OF.

Shortland, T. G., military officer. He was in command of Dartmoor Prison (*q. v.*), where many thousands of American prisoners of war and American seamen, impressed by British war-ships, who had refused to fight against their countrymen in 1812, were confined.

Shoshoni, or **Snake, Indians,** believed to have formed a distinct nation of North American Indians, inhabiting a portion of the country west of and among the Rocky Mountains. They embraced a number of war-like tribes, among whom the Comanches are best known in American history. According to their traditions, they came from the South. When Lewis and Clarke saw them, in 1805, they had been driven beyond the Rocky Mountains. They were widely spread and generally peaceful. The bands of Shoshones have gone by various names. The overland emigrants to California met them in the Great Salt Lake region, on the Humboldt River, and at other places. Soon after that emigration began, these bands assumed a hostile attitude towards the white people, and in 1849 some of them were engaged in open war. Short periods of peace were obtained by treaties, and finally, in 1864, some of the Shoshoni ceded their lands to the United States. The non-fulfilment of the agreement on the part of the latter caused the Indians to begin hostilities again. In 1867 a treaty was made at Fort Bridger, after which the United States government attempted to gather the scattered bands on reservations, and partially succeeded. In 1909 there were in Idaho 1,766 Shoshoni and Bannock under the Fort Hall School, and about 200 not under official supervision; in Nevada there were 243 under the Western Shoshoni School, and about 750 not under agency or school control; and in Wyoming there were 816 under the Shoshoni School. Deducting about 500 Bannock from these figures, the total Shoshoni population approximated 3,250.

Shubrick, WILLIAM BRANFORD, naval officer, born on Bull's Island, S. C., Oct. 31, 1790; entered the navy as midshipman in 1806; was made lieutenant in January, 1813, and in June assisted, by managing a small battery on Craney Island, in repulsing the British. Shubrick was lieutenant of the *Constitution* in her action with the *Cyane* and *Levant*. He commanded a squadron in the Pacific in 1847, and captured some ports from the Mexicans. In 1859 he was in command of the Brazil Squadron and the Paraguay expedition, and from 1860 to 1870 was chairman of the light-house board. He was made rear-admiral on the retired list in July, 1862. He died in Washington, D. C., May 27, 1874.

Shufeldt, ROBERT WILSON, naval officer; born in Red Hook, N. Y., Feb. 21, 1822; entered the navy as midshipman in 1839; and became lieutenant in 1853. In the following year he resigned and took service with the merchant marine. He was in charge of a surveying party on the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and at the beginning of the Civil War commanded a steamship plying between New York and Havana. Soon afterwards he was ap-

pointed United States consul-general in Havana, where he remained till 1863, when he re-entered the navy with the rank of commander. He participated in the operations in Charleston Harbor, and after the war commanded the *Hartford*, of the East India Squadron, and the *Wachusett* of the Asiatic Squadron. In 1870–71 he spent some time surveying on both the Tehuantepec and Nicaragua routes; in 1879–80 was sent on a special commercial mission to Africa and the East Indies; was arbitrator for the United States and British governments to settle the Liberian boundary disputes; negotiated a treaty with the kingdom of Korea for the better conservation of American interests; and as special agent of the United States government at Peking in 1881 he secured the treaty that opened Korea to the commerce of the world. He became rear-admiral May 27, 1883; was retired Feb. 21, 1884; and was influential in his last service in bringing about the creation of the new navy and the designing of the first steel cruiser, as president of the naval advisory board. In recognition of the beneficial effects of his official acts in connection with Korea, he was for some time the guest of that government after his retirement. He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 7, 1895.

Shurtleff, NATHANIEL BRADSTREET, author; born in Boston, Mass., June 29, 1810; graduated at Harvard College in 1831, and at its Medical Department in 1834; was mayor of Boston, Mass., in 1868–70. He was the author of *Passengers of the Mayflower in 1620; Genealogical Memoir of the Family of Elder Thomas Leavett of Boston; Records of the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England; Memoir of the Inauguration of the Statue of Franklin*, etc. He died in Boston, Mass., Oct. 17, 1874.

Shute, SAMUEL, colonial governor; born in London, England, in 1653; received a collegiate education; appointed royal governor of Massachusetts in 1716, but his administration was marked by unfortunate struggles with the Assembly over his prerogatives. In 1723 he visited England to arrange the difficulties; was about to return, in June, 1727, when the King died and a new governor was appointed. He died in England, April 15, 1742.

Siamese Twins, THE, Chang and Eng; born in a small village on the coast of Siam in 1811. Their mother bore seventeen children; once she had three at a birth, and never less than two. These two children were the only deformed ones among them. They were united by a strong band of flesh, three or four inches in diameter, at the anterior part of the chest. Their parents lived by fishing, and the boys sold shell-fish until they were eighteen years of age, when they were brought to the United States and exhibited as curiosities. They were shown in different cities of the Union, and also went to England and France, where they attracted the attention of scientific men. They were very agile, and so accommodated themselves to their situation that they could run, leap, and, when crossing the ocean, climb to the masthead as quickly as any sailor. The twins finally settled in North Carolina, where they purchased an estate. Each was married (their wives were sisters) and had several children, none of whom were deformed. They died within a few hours of each other, Jan. 17, 1874, at the age of sixty-three years.

Sibley, HENRY HASTINGS, pioneer; born in Detroit, Mich., Feb. 20, 1811; became a partner in the American Fur Company in 1834. On one of his trips he arrived at the mouth of the Minnesota River, and was so much pleased with the place that he settled there. On May 29, 1848, when Wisconsin became a State, St. Croix River was made the western boundary. This left about 23,000 square miles east of the Mississippi without a government. In November, 1848, Mr. Sibley was elected to represent this district in Congress where he was instrumental in having an act passed creating the Territory of Minnesota, which was made to include the rest of Wisconsin and a large area west of the Mississippi. He served in Congress till 1853. Minnesota was created a State on May 11, 1858, and he was chosen its first governor. He commanded the white volunteer forces of Iowa and Minnesota against the Sioux rising of 1862, and on Sept. 23 broke the power of the Indians in a decisive battle at Wood Lake; was commis-

sioned brigadier-general of volunteers, and later received the brevet of major-general. He died in St. Paul, Minn., Feb. 18, 1891.

Sibley, HENRY HOPKINS, military officer; born in Nachitoches, La., May 25, 1816; graduated at West Point in 1838, entering the dragoons and serving in the Seminole War. He also served in the war against Mexico. In February, 1861, he was major of dragoons, and was serving against Indians in New Mexico; but in May he joined the Confederates, accepted the commission of brigadier-general in their army, and led a force from Texas for the conquest of New Mexico. At Fort Craig he was repulsed (June 5, 1862) and was driven over the mountains into Texas. In 1869–74 he was in the service of the Khedive of Egypt. He died in Fredericksburg, Va., Aug. 23, 1886.

Sibley, JOHN LANGDON, librarian; born in Union, Me., Dec. 29, 1804; graduated at Harvard College in 1825; studied theology; retired from the ministry in 1833; and applied himself to literary work in 1833–41. He was then appointed assistant librarian of the Harvard library, and was librarian in 1856–77. He was the author of *Index to the Writings of George Washington; History of the Town of Union, Me.; Index to the Works of John Adams; Notices of the Triennial and Annual Catalogues of Harvard University, with a Reprint of the Catalogues of 1674, 1682, and 1700;* and *Biographical Sketches of Graduates of Harvard University.* He died in Cambridge, Mass., Dec. 9, 1885.

Siboney, a seaport town in the province of Santiago de Cuba, a few miles west of Daiquiri. In the American-Spanish War the greater part of the American army was landed at Daiquiri, and the remaining portion at Siboney. The disembarkation of the army at Daiquiri was begun on June 22, and by the evening of the 24th all the troops of this contingent were on shore. The Spanish troops made but little resistance. On the 23d General Lawton's division reached Siboney, and on the following day pushed forward so that General Kent's division might immediately occupy the place. In these early movements the Americans were greatly assisted by a body of Cubans. General Shafter planned that General Lawton's division should take a strong defensive position on the road from Siboney to Santiago; Kent's division was to be held near Santiago; Bates's brigade was to support Lawton; and Wheeler's cavalry division was to be in the rear on the road from Daiquiri to Siboney. On the 23d–24th, however, General Young's brigade, of Wheeler's division, passed Lawton, and was therefore in the advance early the next morning. This brigade consisted of part of the 10th United States Cavalry and two battalions of the 1st Volunteer Cavalry (Rough Riders). On the road to Santiago, and about 3 miles from Siboney, was the strong natural position called Las Guasimas, where the Spaniards were posted in considerable strength, but after an obstinate resistance they were driven from their position (see LAS GUASIMAS). It was, for the purpose of having a consultation with General Shafter, then in headquarters at Siboney, that Rear-Admiral Sampson, with his flag-ship, the *New York,* left the fleet blockading the entrance to the harbor of Santiago, and was thus absent from the opening scene of the great naval engagement of July 3. See EL CANEY; SAN JUAN HILL; SPAIN, WAR WITH.

Sickles, DANIEL EDGAR, military officer; born in New York City, Oct. 20, 1822; was admitted to the bar in 1844; became a member of the legislature in 1847, and was soon a prominent leader in the Democratic party. He went to England with Minister Buchanan as secretary of lega-

DANIEL EDGAR SICKLES.

tion. In 1855 he was elected State senator, and the next year he was elected to Congress. He shot Philip Barton Key (Feb. 27, 1859), in Washington, D. C., for alleged unlawful intimacy with his wife; was tried for murder, but acquitted, and was re-elected to Congress in 1860. When the Civil War broke out he raised the Excelsior (New York) Brigade; was made colonel, and commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers in September, 1861. He commanded a brigade on the Peninsula; took command of General Hooker's troops when that officer was placed at the head of an army corps; and had a division at Antietam and Fredericksburg. At Chancellorsville he commanded an army corps; also at Gettysburg, where he lost a leg. He was promoted major-general of volunteers in 1862; retired as a major-general United States army, in 1869; was minister to Spain in 1869–74; president of the New York State board of civil service commissioners; sheriff of New York in 1890; member of Congress in 1892–94. He was awarded a Congressional medal of honor for distinguished gallantry at Gettysburg. He died May 3, 1914.

Sidell, WILLIAM HENRY, military officer; born in New York City, Aug. 21, 1810; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1833, and assigned to the artillery, but resigned; became city surveyor of New York; assistant engineer of the Croton aqueduct; division engineer of railroads in Massachusetts and New York; chief engineer in the construction of the Panama Railroad; assistant engineer in the hydrographic survey of the delta of the Mississippi River, etc. He entered the Union army at the outbreak of the Civil War as major of the 15th United States Infantry; joined the 10th Infantry as lieutenant-colonel and served in Dakota in 1867–69; was brevetted colonel, and later brigadier-general, United States army, for faithful services during the war; and was retired in 1870. He died in New York City, July 1, 1873.

Siebert, WILBUR HENRY, educator; born in Columbus, O., Aug. 30, 1866; graduated at the Ohio State University in 1888, and studied in Germany in 1890–91; was associate and full professor of European history at the Ohio State University from 1898. He is the author of *The Underground Railroad from Slavery to Freedom; The Government of Ohio; Report on Collections of Material in English and European History in the Libraries of the United States,* etc.

Sieges. The following are the most noteworthy sieges in the history of the United States. See also BATTLES.

Fort William Henry, New York	1757
Louisburg, Canada	1758
Fort Ticonderoga, New York	1758-59
Boston, Massachusetts	1775
Fort Henry, West Virginia	1777
Fort Mifflin, Pennsylvania	1777
Fort Schuyler, New York	1777
Charleston, South Carolina	1780, 1864-65
Fort Ninety-six, South Carolina	1781
Yorktown, Virginia	1781 and 1862
Fort Wabash, Indiana	1812
Fort Wayne, Indiana	1812
Fort George, Canada	1813
Fort Meigs, Ohio	1813
Fort Stephenson, Ohio	1813
Fort Erie, Canada	1814
Fort Brown, Texas	1846
Monterey, Mexico	1846
Puebla, Mexico	1847
Vera Cruz, Mexico	1847
Fort Pickens, Florida	1861
Corinth, Mississippi	1862
Fort Pulaski, Georgia	1862
Island No. 10, Kentucky	1862
Fort Wagner, South Carolina	1863
Port Hudson, Louisiana	1863
Vicksburg, Mississippi	1863
Atlanta, Georgia	1864
Forts Gaines and Morgan, Mobile, Alabama	1864
Fort Fisher, North Carolina	1864-65
Richmond, Virginia	1864-65
Fort Blakely and Spanish Fort, Mobile, Alabama	1865
Santiago, Cuba	1898

Sigel, FRANZ, military officer; born at Sinsheim, Baden, Nov. 18, 1824; graduated at the military school of Carlsruhe; entered the Baden service, but resigned in 1848, when he became a champion of German unity and republicanism. The revolutionary government appointed him secretary of war. At the head of a beaten and dispirited force, after a defeat by the Prince of Prussia, he made a skilful retreat within the walls of the fortress of Rastadt. Upon the flight of the provisional government, in July, Sigel withdrew to Switzerland, and, being expelled by the Swiss government, he came to New York in 1850, taught mathematics, interested himself in the State militia, became major

of a regiment, and in September, 1858, removed to St. Louis and became superintendent of public schools there. When the Civil War broke out he organized a regiment of infantry and a battery, assisted

FRANZ SIGEL.

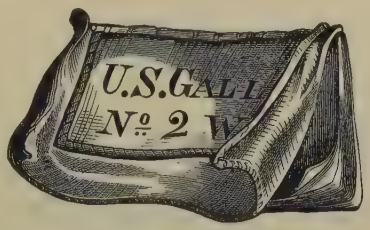
Lyon in the capture of Camp Jackson, and afterwards did signal service in southwestern Missouri, at Carthage, Wilson's Creek, and Springfield. Commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers, he commanded a division in Frémont's army. In command of a division, early in 1862, he bore a conspicuous part in the battle of Pea Ridge (*q. v.*). Promoted major-general, he was placed in command at Harper's Ferry in June, 1862, and late in that month succeeded to the command of Frémont's army corps, and served through the campaign in Virginia under Pope. In September he was placed at the head of the 11th Army Corps. Early in 1864 he was placed in command of the Department of West Virginia. Defeated by Breckinridge at New Market, he was relieved of command by General Hunter. He performed some other military service on the upper Potomac and resigned his commission May 4, 1865. He afterwards served as collector of internal revenue, register, and pension agent in New York City. He died in New York, Aug. 21, 1902.

Signal Corps, in the United States army a bureau of the War Department under the direction of the chief signal officer. This official is charged with the supervision of all military signal duties, and of books, papers, and devices connected therewith, including telegraph and telephone apparatus and the necessary meteorological instruments for use on target ranges and other military uses; the construction, repair, and operation of military telegraph lines, and the duty of collecting and transmitting information for the army by telegraph or otherwise, and all other duties usually pertaining to military signalling.

In the Santiago campaign the Signal Corps rendered its greatest service. Gen. Adolphus W. Greely, (*q. v.*) then signal officer, claimed that Col. James Allen discovered the position of Cervera's squadron.

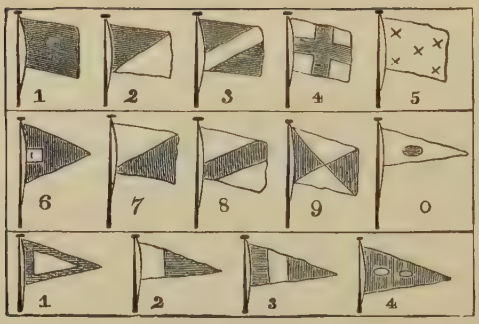
Every day Colonel Allen furnished reports concerning the Spanish fleet. The navy, however, was not able to verify the reports of the Signal Corps, whereupon General Greely was informed that preparations for the campaign were being conducted on his representations and that verification was emphatically desirable.

Signals, believed to have been first used in the navies of Greece and Carthage, and not unlike those used in the present military and naval service. A regular code of day and night signals was arranged by Admirals Howe and Kempenfelt about 1790, and in 1812 Captain Rodgers, of the United States navy, arranged an admirable signal system for its use. This consisted of flags of various forms and colors, to be displayed in different positions, so as to indicate words or sentences to be trans-



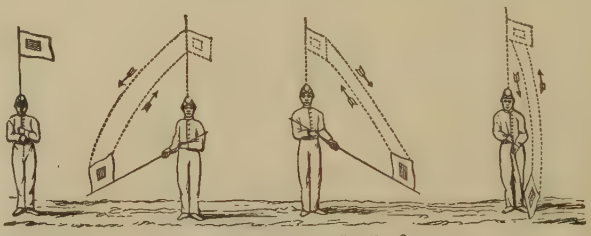
SIGNAL-BOOK.

mitted long distances. The signal-officers at each terminus have a key which interprets the message. That key is a "signal-book," which, when in actual service, is covered with canvas, in which is a plate of lead on each side, of sufficient



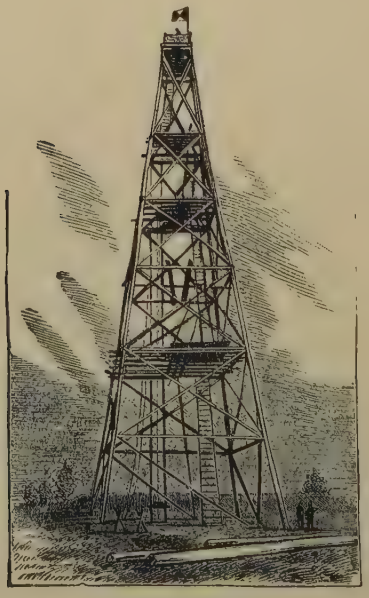
PERMANENT SIGNALS.—NO. 1.

weight to sink the book in case a vessel is about to strike her colors. As each nation has its peculiar "signal-books," this precaution is necessary, so as not to have the secrets of one revealed to the other. Certain flags indicate certain numbers, from 1 to 9; and these numerals, by combination, indicate sentences which are given in the key by coresponding numbers. The pennants represent *duplicate*. In the engraving (No. 1) are nine different flags, with their numbers, and four pennants. With these flags and pennants about 100,000 different signals may be given. A frequent change in the arrangement of signal-flags is necessary for obvious reasons. The code of signals used in the United States navy just previous to the late Civil War was proposed by a board of naval officers, and adopted by the Navy Department in 1857. Another board, in 1859, tested and approved a system of night-signals invented by B. F. Coston, of the United States navy; and in October,



WIG-WAGGING BY FLAG.—NO. 2.

1861, these signals were adopted in the United States army. A new system of signals, for both the army and navy, was invented by MAJ. (afterwards Gen.) ALBERT J. MYER (*q. v.*), which was in use in both branches of the service, night and day, on land and on water, during the Civil War. It is so simple and flexible that it may be used through the medium of sounds, forms, colors, and motions, all of which are regulated and understood by a code. The engraving (No. 2) shows the method of signalling with flags by day, and with torches by night, by motions. The arrows show the direction of the motion. Like the Morse telegraph alphabet, which consists of dots and dashes, the modern signal code is made up of two elements, a motion to the right and a motion to the left, such signalling being known as wig-wagging. For instance, in the engraving (No. 2), fig. 1 indicates "make ready," fig. 2, one motion to the right, may represent the letter I, fig. 3, one motion to the left, the letter T, fig. 4 is "rest," indicating the end of a word. During the Civil War signal-towers were erected for temporary use. The one shown herewith was at



SIGNAL-TOWER.

Point of Rocks, on the Appomattox, and was 125 feet in height. From its top the spires of Richmond, nearly 20 miles distant, could be seen. It was built of pine timber.

Signers of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. See CONSTITUTION; DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE. Biographies of each of the signers will be found under their respective names.

Sigourney, LYDIA HUNTLEY (Mrs.), author; born in Norwich, Conn., Sept. 1, 1791; educated in Norwich and Hartford; and attained a high reputation as a writer. Her publications include *Traits of the Aborigines of America* (a poem); *Sketch of Connecticut Forty Years Since; Pocahontas and Other Poems; Scenes in My Native Land*, etc. She died in Hartford, Conn., June 10, 1865.

Sigsbee, CHARLES DWIGHT, naval officer; born in Albany, N. Y., Jan. 16, 1845; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1863; was promoted ensign in October of that year, and served in the West Gulf Squadron in 1863–64, taking part in the battle of Mobile Bay; served in the North Atlantic Squadron in 1865, being present at both engagements with Fort Fisher. He was promoted captain March 21, 1897, and placed in command of the battle-ship *Maine*, which was ordered to proceed to Havana in the latter part of January, 1898, for the purpose of paying a ceremonial visit. On the night of Feb. 15, 1898, the *Maine* was destroyed at her assigned anchorage in Havana, by an explosion which drove her hull plates inward and upward (see CUBA). Soon after this catastrophe, Sigsbee, in command of the auxiliary cruiser *St. Paul*, in June destroyed the Spanish torpedo-boat *Terror* off San Juan, Porto Rico. In August of the same year he was assigned to the *Texas;* was chief of the bureau of naval intelligence in 1900–03; commanded the South Atlantic Squadron in 1904–05, and the Second Division of the North Atlantic Fleet in 1905–06; promoted rear-admiral in 1903; retired in 1907. He is the author of *Deep-Sea Sounding and Dredging; United States Coast Survey, 1880; Personal Narrative of the Battle-ship Maine, 1899*, etc.

CHARLES DWIGHT SIGSBEE.

Sikes, WILLIAM WIRT, author; born in Watertown, N. Y., in 1836; learned typesetting when a boy, and later wrote for newspapers; was editorially connected with the Utica *Herald*, the Chicago *Times* and *Evening Journal*, and the New York *Sun;* removed to New York in 1867; and was United States consul at Cardiff, Wales, in 1876–83. He died in London, England, Aug. 19, 1883.

Silk Culture and Manufacture. James I. tried to establish silk culture in the American colonies, but failed. He sent silk-worms to Virginia and offered a bounty for silk cloth manufactured there; but the planters found the cultivation of tobacco more profitable. Some silk fabric was sent to Charles II. in 1668. Early in the century it was introduced into Louisiana, and the industry was also undertaken in Georgia. In 1734 Oglethorpe took eight pounds of cocoons with him to England. The last lot of Georgia silk offered for sale was in 1790. Before the Revolution, silk was grown and manufactured in New England. A silk manufactory was established at Mansfield, Conn., in 1776, where the manufacture is yet carried on. About 1836 to 1839 there was a mania for the cultivation of silk and of the mulberry-tree, on which the caterpillar feeds. As high as $100 was paid for a single plant, but the bubble soon burst.

The development of the silk-manufacturing industry of the United States during the last few years is an interesting

feature of the country's progress. The phenomenal growth is shown by the fact that, since the Civil War, the increase in the gross value of such products is measured by the difference between slightly less than $4,000,000 and nearly $197,000,000.

Of 843 establishments reported as engaged in this manufacture in 1909, there were 566, or 67 per cent. of the total, in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, the former State leading with 347 establishments. The number of spindles increased from 1,655,903 in 1899 to 2,405,527 in 1909, and looms from 44,430 to 75,406; and during this decade the quantity of raw silk imported increased from 13,583,472 pounds to 24,708,260.

Sill, JOSHUA WOODROW, military officer; born in Chillicothe, O., Dec. 6, 1831; graduated at the United States Military Academy and was commissioned second lieutenant in the ordnance department in 1853; assistant Professor of Geography, History, and Ethics at West Point till 1857; later was in command of the Vancouver ordnance depot, Washington, and the Leavenworth depot, Kansas, and resigned from the army in 1861 to become Professor of Mathematics and Civil Engineering in the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute. He entered the volunteer service at the outbreak of the Civil War as colonel; was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers in July, 1862, and was killed in the battle of Murfreesboro, Dec. 31, 1862.

Sillery, BATTLE NEAR. After the fall of Quebec (September, 1759) the French army repaired to Montreal. M. de Levi, who succeeded Montcalm, resolved to attempt the recovery of Quebec in the spring of 1760. He went down the St. Lawrence in April with a large force marching by land, and artillery, military stores, and baggage in boats, under convoy of six frigates, and rested at Pointe aux Trembles, a few miles above Quebec. At the latter place General Murray had been left with 5,000 troops to maintain the conquest of Canada, but sickness and privation had reduced the effective force of the garrison to about 3,000. With this force he went out (April 28, 1760) to meet the approaching foe. Near Sillery, about 3 miles above Quebec, he attacked the French with great impetuosity. After a severe struggle, finding himself outflanked and in danger of being surrounded by superior numbers, he retreated to the city. In that encounter the English lost 1,000 men, the French still more. Then the English were besieged by the French. At about the middle of May a British fleet arrived at Quebec, and M. de Levi was compelled to abandon the siege and fly in haste back to Montreal.

Silliman, AUGUSTUS ELY, financier; born in Newport, R. I., April 11, 1807; entered commercial life; later became connected with the Merchants' Bank of New York City, was its president in 1857–68, when he retired; took part in establishing the Clearing House Association in 1853. He published *A Gallop among American Scenery, or Sketches of American Scenes and Military Adventure;* and bequeathed to Yale University, in memory of his mother, $100,000 for the foundation of an annual series of lectures. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., May 30, 1884.

Silliman, BENJAMIN, scientist; born in North Stratford, Conn., Aug. 8, 1779; graduated at Yale College in 1796, and was a tutor there from 1799 to 1804; studied law and was admitted to practice in 1802, but in that year was appointed Professor of Chemistry and Natural History in Yale. After studying these branches with Dr. Woodhouse for two years, he gave, in the winter of 1804–5, his first

BENJAMIN SILLIMAN.

full course of lectures, and soon afterwards went to England, visiting the mining districts there and attending lectures in London and Edinburgh. He also visited Holland, and published an account of his European experiences. He made a partial geological survey of Connecticut after his return, which is believed to be the first of such explorations made in the United States. In 1813 he published an account of his experiments with the oxy-hydrogen blow-pipe of Dr. Hare, by which he (Silliman) had greatly extended the list of bodies known to be fusible. He founded the *American Journal of Science and Art* in 1810, of which for twenty-eight years he was an editor, and twenty years of that time sole editor. His son, Benjamin Silliman, Jr., became associate editor in 1838, and in 1846 the editorship was transferred to Prof. James D. Dana and Benjamin Silliman, Jr. Besides giving lectures on chemistry and geology in most of the large cities of the Union, Professor Silliman published scientific essays, a text-book on chemistry, and books of travel. In 1820 his *Account of a Journey between Hartford and Quebec* attracted much attention. In 1853 he resigned his professorship in Yale and was made professor emeritus. He died in New Haven, Nov. 24, 1864.

Silliman, Benjamin, chemist; born in New Haven, Conn., Dec. 4, 1816; son of the preceding; graduated at Yale College in 1837. From 1838 to 1847 he was instructor in that institution in chemistry, mineralogy, and geology. In 1846 he was appointed professor of chemistry, applied to the arts, in the scientific school of the college. For about five years (1849–54) he was professor of medical chemistry and toxicology in the University of Louisville, Ky. In 1854 he succeeded his father in the chair of chemistry at Yale. The younger Silliman bore well the mantle of his father in all departments of learning. He died in New Haven, Conn., Jan. 14, 1885.

Silver. In the world's production of silver, Mexico leads, with about one-third of the total, followed by the United States with one-fourth and by Canada with about one-eighth. Under mining conditions existing in 1911, the silver-mining industry of the United States was relatively small, only thirty-six per cent. of the silver production being derived from precious-metal ores, and only a small portion of this from purely silver ores. The great bulk of the production was from the refining of gold, copper, and lead from gold-silver, copper, and lead ores. The following table shows the production and commercial value of silver in the period of 1792–1909, as officially estimated for the early years and reported for the later:

SILVER PRODUCTION IN 1792–1909.

Years.	Quantity. *Fine ounces.*	Value. *Commercial.*
1792–1847.....	309,500	$404,500
1848–1872.....	118,568,200	157,749,900
1873–1909.....	1,718,992,800	1,408,347,400
Total.....	1,837,870,500	$1,566,501,800

The production from domestic ores in 1909 was 54,721,500 fine ounces, having a commercial value of $28,455,200. Twenty-three States and Territories supplied this output, while a nominal quantity was derived from refining gold bullion produced in the Philippines. The largest single-year production in the period of 1880–1909 was 63,500,000 fine ounces in 1892. The most productive States in 1909 were: Montana, 12,378,714 fine ounces; Utah, 11,717,172; Nevada, 10,981,061; Colorado, 8,902,633; and Idaho, 7,041,633. See Gold.

Scarcity of money was felt in New England as in the other colonies, and resort was had to the use of wampum as a substitute, and corn, cattle, and other commodities were made legal tenders in payment of debts. In Virginia the substitute for specie was tobacco. In 1652 a mint was established at Boston, and a law was passed providing for the coinage of all bullion, plate, and Spanish coin into "twelvepenny, sixpenny, and threepenny pieces." The master of the mint was John Hull, and the shillings coined by him were called "Pine-Tree Shillings," because they bore on one side the legend "Massachusetts" encircling a tree.

During the reign of William III. the problems of coinage and currency were conspicuous in the politics both of the mother-country and the colonies. The colonial situation was especially difficult,

for coin of any kind was scarce, and English sterling money was hardly current at all. The most common coins in the colonies were the Spanish "pieces of eight," which have been called "the original of the American 'dollar.'" The "piece of eight" was not, however, a fixed standard either in weight or commercial value as measured in sterling money. One of the charges made against the chartered colonies was that by raising and lowering the value of coins, as well as by various other methods, they tended "greatly to the undermining of the trade of the other plantations." William Penn, in his *Suggestions Respecting the Plantations*, presented to the home government in 1700, said that the value of pieces of eight varied from 4*s.* 6*d.* in Maryland to 7*s.* 8*d.* in the neighboring colony of Pennsylvania, and he urged the desirability of a single fixed standard.

Such a standard was attempted in 1704 through a proclamation of Queen Anne, which fixed within certain limits the ratio between standard foreign coins and sterling. This royal order proved ineffective, and in 1707 Parliament gave to the proclamation the force of a statute, imposing penalties on persons who took foreign coins at a rate exceeding the legal ratio; and this act was specifically declared applicable to the chartered colonies as well as to the royal governments.

The ratio of the value of silver to gold has varied as follows: 1000 B.C., 12 to 1; 500 B.C., 13 to 1; beginning of the Christian era, 9 to 1; A.D. 500, 18 to 1; A.D. 1100, 8 to 1; A.D. 1400, 11 to 1; A.D. 1554, 6 to 1; A.D. 1561, 2 to 1. From this time on silver began to depreciate in consequence of the American production: A.D. 1600, 10 to 1; A.D. 1727, 13 to 1; A.D. 1800 to 1872, 15½ to 1; A.D. 1894, 32 to 1. See BIMETALLISM; BRYAN, W. J.; MCKINLEY, W.; FREE SILVER; MORRILL, J. S., etc.

Silver. REMONETIZATION OF. See MORRILL, JUSTIN SMITH.

Silver Dollar, THE. Among the coins to be struck at the United States mint, under the provisions of the act of Congress approved April 2, 1792, was a silver dollar of the weight of 416 grains. It was enacted that all silver coins of the United States should be 1,485 parts fine to 179 parts alloy; the former to be of pure silver and the latter of pure copper. The silver dollar was not coined until 1794. It was adorned with a head of Liberty. These dollars continued to be coined at the mint until the close of 1803, when their coinage was stopped, it is said, by President Jefferson, because it stimulated the exportation of silver from the country. Yet during the years 1804–05 there were issued from the mint silver dollars of the coinage of former years to the amount of $19,891. The dies had been prepared for issuing the dollar of 1804, but not more than twenty pieces were struck. These are held in the most sacred reverence by the few fortunate collectors of coins who possess them. Because of the cessation in the coinage of the silver dollar, there was a steady increase in the coinage of the half-dollar and other fractions of the dollar until 1834, when $3,260,000 in halves were coined and issued. Yet the public demand for a metallic currency so continually increased that Congress passed an act (Jan. 25, 1834) making the dollars of Mexico, Peru, Chile, and Central America, of a given weight and certain fineness, a legal tender in payment of debts. The object was, as the United States was not then a silver-producer, to economize the importation and use of the silver of other countries.

The act approved June 28, 1834, left the silver dollar at its original weight and fineness; but in 1837 there was a radical change made by act approved Jan. 18, 1837. The change was in the fineness of both the gold and the silver coins. By increasing the fineness, a corresponding decrease in the weight of each piece was effected. The standard thus established in both the gold and the silver coins was to make each to consist of 1,000 parts, of which 900 parts were to be pure gold or silver and 100 parts pure copper alloy. Under this act the silver dollar was reduced from 416 grains to 412½ grains. The decreased weight in the dollar of 1837 was caused by decreasing the weight of the copper alloy. For more than a year the authorities of the mint were preparing dies for the new dollar, and a few pattern-dollars were struck. Several devices were abandoned, and a sitting figure of Liberty was adopted, and used for many years. In 1840 the mint coined

61,000 of the new design of the silver dollar. There was no popular demand for this coin; but the dollar was issued from the mint from time to time until April 1, 1873, when the dollar of 1792 and 1837 ceased to have a place in the national coinage, the issue having been discontinued by act of Congress passed Feb. 12, 1873.

The trade dollar, weighing 420 grains, and 900 fine, contained 7½ grains more than the dollar of 1837. It was not intended for circulation at home, but for trade with Japan and other Eastern countries. The object of issuing it was to compete, if possible, with the dollars of Mexico and Spain, and to encourage the shipment of American silver to the East Indies, for the country had suddenly become a silver-producer. In 1878 an act was passed providing for the coinage of a silver dollar weighing 412.5 grains, and declaring the trade dollar not a legal tender for any sum. The latter almost immediately disappeared from circulation. The silver dollar which took its place was placed legally on an equality with gold. The unpopularity of the old silver dollar is made manifest by the fact that of the total silver coinage of $145,141,884, issued between 1794 and 1873, only $8,045,838 were in dollar pieces. A large portion of these were issued for manufacturers. But of the new silver dollar the total coinage in the year 1890 was $380,988,466, and of this amount 56,278,749 dollar pieces were in actual circulation. See BIMETALLISM; BRYAN, WILLIAM JENNINGS; BANKS, NATIONAL; COINAGE; CURRENCY; FREE SILVER; MORRILL, JUSTIN SMITH.

Silver Grays, a term applied to the Whigs of New York who supported the administration of President Fillmore, and regarded the slavery question settled by the compromise of 1850. A convention of the administration was held at Syracuse, Sept. 27, 1850, to secure a vindication of the President's policy, etc. The convention resulted in an emphatic majority against the administration; whereupon the chairman, Mr. Granger, and several other administration men, left the convention; as they were elderly men, they, with their following, were immediately dubbed "Silver Grays."

Silver Legislation. The silver bill, which was adopted by act of Congress and approved July 14, 1890, provided that silver bullion to the amount of 4,500,000 ounces might be purchased monthly, or as much thereof as should be offered, and that silver notes should be issued on deposit of silver bullion, the same to be redeemed, upon demand, in gold or silver coin at the discretion of the secretary. The bill also declared it to be the settled policy of the United States to maintain a parity between the two metals, gold and silver, at such ratio as the law should determine; and it required the monthly coinage into dollars of 2,000,000 ounces of the bullion purchased until July 1, 1891.

The purchasing clause of the silver bill of 1890 was repealed in 1893. The Republican party pledged itself to secure international recognition of silver if possible, and on that issue won the general election of 1896. In the fall of 1897 Congress was expected to take action appointing commissioners to visit European countries, with power to act. Several commissioners were sent by the President in 1897, but without power to act. See BANKS, NATIONAL; BIMETALLISM; COINAGE; CURRENCY; FREE SILVER.

Silver Question. See BIMETALLISM: BRYAN, WILLIAM JENNINGS; MCKINLEY, WILLIAM; FREE SILVER; MORRILL, JUSTIN SMITH.

Silver Republican Party, a political organization in the United States which adopted a platform in national convention in Kansas City, Mo., July 6, 1900; the essential points of which are:

Adherence to Bimetallism.—We declare our adherence to the principle of bimetallism as the right basis of a monetary system under our national Constitution, a principle that found place repeatedly in Republican platforms from the demonetization of silver in 1873 to the St. Louis Republican convention of 1896.

The Currency Law.—This currency law destroys the full money power of the silver dollar, provides for the payment of all government obligations and the redemption of all forms of paper money in gold alone; retires the time-honored and patriotic greenbacks, constituting one-sixth of the money in circulation, and surrenders to banking corporations a sovereign function of issuing all paper money, thus enabling these corporations to control the

prices of labor and property by increasing or diminishing the volume of money in circulation, thus giving the banks power to create panics and bring disaster upon business enterprises.

The provisions of this currency law making the bonded debt of the republic payable in gold alone change the contract between the government and the bondholders to the advantage of the latter and is in direct opposition to the declaration of the Matthews resolution passed by Congress in 1878, for which resolution the present Republican President, then a member of Congress, voted, as did also all leading Republicans, both in the House and Senate.

We declare it to be our intention to lend our efforts to the repeal of this currency law, which not only repudiates the ancient and time-honored principles of the American people before the Constitution was adopted, but is violative of the principles of the Constitution itself, and we shall not cease our efforts until there has been established in its place a monetary system based upon the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold into money at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1 by the independent action of the United States, under which system all paper money shall be issued by the government and all such money coined or issued shall be a full legal tender in payment of all debts, public and private, without exception.

Income Tax Favored.—We are in favor of a graduated tax upon incomes.

Election of Senators by the People.—We believe that United States Senators ought to be elected by direct vote of the people.

Civil Service Reforms.—We favor the maintenance and the extension wherever practicable of the merit system in the public service, appointments to be made according to fitness, competitively ascertained, and public servants to be retained in office only so long as shall be compatible with the efficiency of the service.

Trusts and Monopolies.—Combinations, trusts, and monopolies contrived and arranged for the purpose of controlling the prices and quality of articles supplied to the public are unjust, unlawful, and oppressive. We declare against them. We demand the most stringent laws for their destruction and the most severe punishment of their promoters and maintainers and the energetic enforcement of such laws by the courts.

The Monroe Doctrine.—We believe the Monroe doctrine to be sound in principle and a wise national policy, and we demand a firm adherence thereto. We condemn acts inconsistent with it and that tend to make us parties to the interests and to involve us in the controversies of European nations and to recognition by pending treaty of the right of England to be considered in the construction of an interoceanic canal. We declare that such canal, when constructed, ought to be controlled by the United States in the interests of American nations.

Alien Ownership.—We observe with anxiety and regard with disapproval the increasing ownership of American lands by aliens and their growing control over our international transportation, natural resources, and public utilities. We demand legislation to protect our public domain, our natural resources, our franchises, and our internal commerce and to keep them free and maintain their independence of all foreign monopolies, institutions, and influences, and we declare our opposition to the leasing of the public lands of the United States whereby corporations and syndicates will be able to secure control thereof and thus monopolize the public domain, the heritage of the people.

Pensions for Soldiers.—In view of the great sacrifice made and patriotic services rendered we are in favor of liberal pensions to deserving soldiers, their widows, orphans, and other dependants. We believe that enlistment and service should be accepted as conclusive proof that the soldier was free from disease and disability at the time of his enlistment. We condemn the present administration of the pension laws.

Sympathy with the Boers.—We tender to the patriotic people of the South African republics our sympathy and express our admiration for them in their heroic attempts to preserve their political freedom and maintain their national independence. We declare the destruction of these republics and the subjugation of their people to be a crime against civilization.

Abandon the Philippines.—We believe in self-government—a government by the consent of the governed—and are unalterably opposed to a government based upon force. It is clear and certain that the inhabitants of the Philippine Archipelago cannot be made citizens of the United States without endangering our civilization. We are, therefore, in favor of applying to the Philippine Archipelago the principle we are solemnly and publicly pledged to observe in the case of Cuba.

Repeal of War Taxes.—There no longer being any necessity for collecting war taxes, we demand the repeal of the war taxes levied to carry on the war with Spain.

Statehood for the Territories.—We favor the immediate admission into the Union of States the Territories of Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma.

Cuba.—We demand that our nation's promises to Cuba shall be fulfilled in every particular.

Arid Western Lands.—We believe the national government should lend every aid, encouragement, and assistance towards the reclamation of the arid lands of the United States, and to that end we are in favor of a comprehensive survey thereof and an immediate ascertainment of the water supply available for such reclamation.

Unreasonable Railway Charges.—Transportation is a public necessity, and the means and methods of it are matters of public concern. Railway companies exercise a power over industries, business, and commerce which they ought not to do, and should be made to serve the public interests without making unreasonable charges or unjust discriminations.

Ownership of Public Utilities.—We observe with satisfaction the growing sentiment among the people in favor of the public ownership and operation of public utilities.

Expansion of Commerce.—We are in favor of expanding our commerce in the interests of American labor and for the benefit of all our people by every honest and peaceful means. Our creed and our history justify the nations of the earth in expecting that wherever the American flag is unfurled in authority human liberty and political liberty will be found. We protest against the adoption of any policy that will change in the thought of the world the meaning of our flag.

The party indorsed the nomination of William J. Bryan for President, and referred the nomination of a candidate for Vice-President to its national committee, which indorsed the Democratic nomination of A. E. Stevenson. There were no separate returns of the popular vote for its Presidential candidates.

Simcoe, JOHN GRAVES, military officer; born near Exeter, England, Feb. 25, 1752; entered the army in 1770; came to America with a company of foot, with which he fought in the battles of Brandywine and Monmouth; raised a battalion which he called "The Queen's Rangers"; trained them for light and active service; and with them performed important services, especially in the South. In June, 1779, Clinton gave him the local rank of lieutenant-colonel. His light corps was always in advance of the army and engaged in gallant exploits. His corps was disbanded after the war, and its officers were placed on half-pay. Simcoe was governor of Canada in 1791–94; was made major-general in 1794, and lieutenant-general in 1798. He was governor and commander-in-chief of Santo Domingo in 1796–97. He died in Torbay, England, Oct. 26, 1806.

Simmons, FRANKLIN, sculptor; born in Webster, Me., Jan. 11, 1839; showed a love for art early in life, and during his college career spent much time in drawing and modelling. It was not until he had made his first visit to Boston that he saw a statue or had any idea of the art of sculpture, there being, at that time, few examples in New England. On leaving college, having made some portrait-busts with success, he decided to devote himself to sculpture. The Civil War then burst upon the country, and Mr. Simmons sought the field of operations, not as a soldier, but as a commemorator of the leading soldiers and statesmen of the day. During several years spent in Philadelphia and Washington, some thirty generals and statesmen sat to him for their busts, among them Lincoln, Grant, Sheridan, Meade, Seward, and Chase, which gave great satisfaction. Having received a commission from the State of Rhode Island to make a statue of Roger Will-

iams for the Capitol at Washington, he went to Rome, where he resided till his death, Dec. 10, 1913. His works include monuments to Grant and Logan at the National capital, and a second statue of Roger Williams at Providence.

Simms, William Gilmore, author; born in Charleston, S. C., April 17, 1806; admitted to the bar in 1827; but applied himself to literature; was editor of the Charleston *City Gazette* in 1828–32; and author of *Views and Reviews in American History; History of South Carolina; Geography of South Carolina; South Carolina in the Revolution; The Partisan; Mellichampe; The Scout; The Foragers; Eutaw, and Other Revolutionary Romances; The Yemassee; Guy Rivers; Border Beagles; Beauchamp; Charlemont;* and *Other Colonial and Border Romances of the South,* etc. He died in Charleston, S. C., June 11, 1870.

Simonin, Louis Laurent, geologist; born in Marseilles, Aug. 22, 1830; was educated at the School of Mines, at Saint Etienne; and in 1852 engaged in engineering; made several voyages to the United States, visited Cuba, the West Indies, Central America, the Isthmus of Panama, Mexico, and California. Among his publications are *The Great West of the United States; The American; American Society,* and *Gold and Silver.* He died in Paris, France, in June, 1886.

Simpson, Edward, naval officer; born in New York City, March 3, 1824; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1846; served on the steamer *Vixen* during the Mexican War, and took part in various engagements, among them the bombardment and capture of Vera Cruz; promoted lieutenant-commander in July, 1862; served on the monitor *Passaic* off Charleston in 1863–64; promoted rear-admiral Feb. 9, 1884; and retired March 3, 1886. His publications include *Ordnance and Naval Gunnery; The Naval Mission to Europe,* etc. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 2, 1888.

Simpson, James Hervey, military officer; born in New Jersey, March 9, 1813; graduated at West Point in 1832, entering the artillery corps. He was aide to General Eustis in the Seminole War, and in 1838 became a lieutenant in the corps of topographical engineers. He was colonel of the 4th New Jersey Volunteers in the Peninsula campaign, and was afterwards chief engineer of the Department of Ohio. In March, 1865, he was brevetted brigadier-general, United States army. Having been on surveying expeditions in the West, he published a *Journal of a Military Reconnoissance from Santa Fé to the Navajo Country;* a *Report on the Union Pacific Railroad and its Branches;* and *Essay on Coronado's March in Search of the Seven Cities of Cibola.* He died in St. Paul, Minn., March 2, 1883.

Simpson, Matthew, clergyman; born in Cadiz, O., June 20, 1810; graduated at Madison College, Pennsylvania, in 1829; taught there in 1829–32; studied medicine and later theology; ordained and joined the Pittsburgh conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1833; became vice-president and professor of natural science in Allegheny College in 1837; president of Indiana Asbury University, Greencastle, Ind., in 1839; elected bishop in 1852; and was employed by the government on several important confidential missions during the Civil War. He was author of *A Hundred Years of Methodism* and an edition of *The Western Christian Advocate.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., June 18, 1884.

Sims, Edwin Walter, lawyer; born in Hamilton, Ontario, Canada, June 4, 1870; engaged for several years in journalism in Detroit, Mich.; admitted to the bar, 1894; became special attorney United States Bureau of Corporations; solicitor Department of Commerce and Labor, 1905; special agent of the government to investigate the Alaskan fur-seal fisheries, 1906; United States attorney for the Chicago district, 1906; member of advisory board, Fur-seal Service, 1909. He worked up the case against the Standard Oil Company, prosecuted it before Judge Kenesaw Mountain Landis (*q. v.*), in 1907, and secured a verdict imposing a fine of $29,240,000.

Sims, James Marion, surgeon; born in Lancaster county, S. C., Jan. 25, 1813; graduated at the South Carolina College in 1832, and at the Jefferson Medical College in 1835; settled in New York in 1853 and later obtained a charter to establish the Woman's Hospital of the State of New York, for which New York

City gave site. Dr. Sims was identified with many learned societies in the United States and Europe, and was president of the American Medical Association. He died in New York City, Nov. 13, 1883.

Singer, ISAAC MERRITT, inventor; born in Oswego, N. Y., Oct. 27, 1811; learned the machinist's trade; devoted himself to improving sewing-machines; invented a single-thread, chain-stitch machine, for the manufacture of which he built a factory in New York (with Edward Clark, a wealthy lawyer). He was sued by the Howe Sewing-machine Company for infringing upon the patents of Elias Howe while the latter was absent in England in 1847–49. After much litigation, in which some of the most prominent lawyers of the United States were employed, the priority of Howe's invention was established and a compromise was effected in 1854. Singer died in Torquay, England, July 23, 1875.

Single Tax, the doctrine taught by the late HENRY GEORGE (*q. v.*) in *Progress and Poverty.* For lack of a better name, Mr. George's doctrines have been called single-tax doctrines, and his adherents single-taxers. It is claimed, however, that these terms only measurably and briefly describe the reforms proposed.

The following exposition of the doctrine was prepared by Hamlin Russell, of Newark, N. J., who for many years was associated with Mr. George:

Progress and Poverty, the work upon which Mr. George's fame as a writer and thinker must ever rest, was written between August, 1877, and March, 1879. The book is an elaboration of a previous pamphlet entitled *Our Land and Land Policy,* published in San Francisco in 1871. It consists of a careful examination in which the author endeavors to "seek the law which associates poverty with progress and increases want with advancing wealth." As a preliminary to this search he first endeavors to establish the proposition that poverty deepens as wealth increases, that "where the lowest class barely lives, as has been the case for a long time in many parts of Europe, it is impossible for it to get any lower, for the next lowest step is out of existence, and no tendency to further depression can readily show itself. But in the progress of new settlements to the conditions of older communities it may clearly be seen that material progress does not merely fail to relieve poverty—it actually produces it. In the United States it is clear that squalor and misery, and the vices and crimes that spring from them, everywhere increase as the village grows to the city and the march of development brings the advantages of the improved methods of production and exchange. If there is less deep poverty in San Francisco than in New York, is it not because San Francisco is yet behind New York in all that both cities are striving for? When San Francisco reaches the point where New York now is, who can doubt that there will also be ragged and barefooted children on her streets?"

It is difficult to briefly formulate the result of the author's researches along these lines and to state at the same time the remedy he proposes for the betterment of social conditions. He infers that there must be a common cause, seeing that "there is distress where large standing armies are maintained, but that there is also distress where the standing armies are nominal; there is distress where protective tariffs stupidly and wastefully hamper trade, but there is also distress where trade is nearly free; there is distress where autocratic government yet prevails, but there is also distress where political power is wholly in the hands of the people; in countries where paper is money, and in countries where gold and silver are the only currency." After pursuing his inquiry at great length the cause and the remedy are found to be, first, that a primal wrong has been committed in the institution of private property in land, and, second, that the remedy is to make land common property.

Commenting on these findings, he says: "There is but one way to remove an evil, and that is to remove its cause. Poverty deepens as wealth increases, and wages are forced down while productive power grows, because land, which is the source of all wealth and the field of all labor, is monopolized. To extirpate poverty, to make wages what justice commands, the

full earnings of the laborer, we must therefore substitute for the individual ownership of land a common ownership. Nothing else will go to the cause of the evil—in nothing else is there the slightest hope. This, then, is the remedy for the unjust and unequal distribution of wealth apparent in modern civilization, and for all the evils which flow from it."

The announcement of these doctrines in *Progress and Poverty* attracted immediate and serious attention. They were in no sense new doctrines, but they certainly were presented to thinking and active minds for the first time in a manner that imperatively demanded action. Speaking of the French economists of the eighteenth century, headed by Quesnay and Turgot, Mr. George says, on page 380 of *Progress and Poverty* (Webster & Co.'s edition): "They proposed just what I have proposed, that all taxation should be abolished, save a tax upon the value of land," and, "without knowing anything of Quesnay and his doctrines, I have reached the same practical conclusion."

In 1850 Herbert Spencer published his first book, *Social Statics*. The ninth chapter of this book, which is entitled *The Right to the Use of the Earth*, contains a long argument that has been fairly paraphrased by Mr. George as follows:

1. The equal right of all men to the use of land springs from the fact of their existence in a world adapted to their needs in which they are similarly born.

2. Equity, therefore, does not permit private property in land, since that would involve the right of some to deny to others the use of land.

3. Private property in land as at present existing can show no original title valid in justice, and such validity cannot be gained either by sale or bequest, or by peaceable possession during any length of time.

4. Nor is there any mode by which land can justly become private property. Cultivation and improvement can give title to their results, not to the land itself.

5. Nor could an equal division of land with the consent of all, even if it were not impossible that such a division could be made, give valid title to private property in land. For the equal right to the use of land would attach to all those thereafter born, irrespective of any agreement made by their predecessors.

6. There can be no modification of this dictate of equity. Either all men have equal right to the use of the land or some men have the just right to enslave others and deprive them of life.

7. As a matter of fact, nobody does really believe in private property in land. An act of Parliament even now supersedes title-deeds. That is to say, the right of private ownership in land exists by general consent; that being withdrawn, it ceases.

8. But the doctrine that all men are equally entitled to the use of the land does not involve communism or socialism, and need cause no serious change in existing arrangements. It is not necessary that the state should manage land: it is only necessary that rent, instead of going, as now, to individuals, should be taken by society for common purposes.

9. There may be difficulty in justly liquidating the claims of existing land-owners; but men, having got themselves into a dilemma, must get out of it as well as they can. The landed class are not alone to be considered. So long as the treatment of land as private property continues, the masses suffer from an injustice only inferior in wickedness to depriving them of life or personal liberty.

10. However difficult it may be to embody in fact the theory of the co-heirship of all men to the soil, equity sternly demands it to be done.

Mr. Spencer's views, however, do not appear to have moved any considerable number of men to take practical action towards righting the injustice he pointed out, until after the appearance of *Progress and Poverty*. In 1892 he brought out a new edition of *Social Statics*, in which everything relating to land is omitted, and the new book was accompanied by a publisher's advertisement to the effect that Mr. Spencer had "abandoned" the views contained in the old edition. Mr. Spencer in "abandoning" or "withdrawing" his original views in this connection neglected, however, to disprove them.

Other writers and apologists of the existing order sprang up by scores during the controversial period between 1880 and

1894, and many "answers" to *Progress and Poverty* were given to the world. The most notable of these "answers" was the one prepared by the late Duke of Argyll, entitled *The Prophet of San Francisco,* and republished in full, with Mr. George's reply thereto, in 1893.

Patrick Edward Dove was another forerunner of George. In the *Theory of Human Progression* he says: "If, then, successive generations of men cannot have their practical share of the actual soil (including mines, etc.), how can the division of the advantages of the natural earth be effected? By the division of its annual value or rent; that is, by making the rent of the soil the common property of the nation. That is (as the taxation is the common property of the State), by taking the whole of the taxes out of the rents of the soil, and thereby abolishing all other kinds of taxation whatever, and thus all industry would be absolutely emancipated from every burden."

Those who care to examine further into the evolution of the single-tax doctrine as it appears in the writings of men who preceded George, sometimes directly and clearly and at other times dimly seen or only partly apprehended by men who failed to follow out their thought to its logical conclusion, will find in *The Earth for all Calender,* compiled by Ernest Crosby, a good bibliography, in connection with extended quotations from all the authors mentioned therein.

It may properly be said, then, that if Mr. George's book did not announce a new doctrine, he certainly called attention to, and made clear, a doctrine that had been more or less perfectly stated but which afterwards became obscured. Or, to use Mr. George's own words, words that have been carved upon his tomb:

"The truth that I have tried to make clear will not find easy acceptance. If that could be, it would have been accepted long ago. If that could be, it never would have been obscured. But it will find friends—those who will toil for it; suffer for it; if need be, die for it. This is the power of truth."

The Single-tax Platform.—Adopted by the national conference of the Single-tax League of the United States at Cooper Union, New York, Sept. 3, 1890. Henry George, chairman of committee on platform:

We assert as our fundamental principle the self-evident truth enunciated in the Declaration of American Independence, that all men are created equal and are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights.

We hold that all men are equally entitled to the use and enjoyment of what God has created and of what is gained by the general growth and improvement of the community of which they are a part. Therefore, no one should be permitted to hold natural opportunities without a fair return to all for any special privilege thus accorded to him, and that value which the growth and improvement of the community attach to land should be taken for the use of the community.

We hold that each man is entitled to all that his labor produces. Therefore no tax should be levied on the products of labor.

To carry out these principles we are in favor of raising all public revenues for national, State, county, and municipal purposes by a single tax upon land values, irrespective of improvements, and of the abolition of all forms of direct and indirect taxation.

Since in all our States we now levy some tax on the value of land, the single tax can be instituted by the simple and easy way of abolishing, one after another, all other taxes now levied, and commensurately increasing the tax on land values, until we draw upon that one source for all expenses of government, the revenue being divided between local governments, State governments, and the general government, as the revenue from direct taxes is now divided between the local and State governments; or, a direct assessment being made by the general government upon the States and paid by them from revenues collected in this manner.

The single tax we propose is not a tax on land, and therefore would not fall on the use of land and become a tax on labor.

It is a tax, not on land, but on the value of land. Thus it would not fall on all land, but only on valuable land, and on that not in proportion to the use made of it, but in proportion to its value—the premium which the user of land must

pay to the owner, either in purchase money or rent, for permission to use valuable land. It would thus be a tax not on the use or improvement of land, but on the ownership of land, taking what would otherwise go to the owner as owner, and not as user.

In assessments under the single tax all values created by individual use or improvement would be excluded, and the only value taken into consideration would be the value attaching to the bare land by reason of neighborhood, etc., to be determined by impartial periodical assessments. Thus the farmer would have no more taxes to pay than the speculator who held a similar piece of land idle, and the man who on a city lot erected a valuable building would be taxed no more than the man who held a similar lot vacant.

The single tax, in short, would call upon men to contribute to the public revenues, not in proportion to what they produce or accumulate, but in proportion to the value of the natural opportunities they hold. It would compel them to pay just as much for holding land idle as for putting it to its fullest use.

The single tax, therefore, would—

1. Take the weight of taxation off of the agricultural districts where land has little or no value irrespective of improvements, and put it on towns and cities, where bare land rises to a value of millions of dollars per acre.

2. Dispense with a multiplicity of taxes and a horde of tax-gatherers, simplify goverment and greatly reduce its cost.

3. Do away with the fraud, corruption, and gross inequality inseparable from our present methods of taxation, which allow the rich to escape while they grind the poor. Land cannot be hid or carried off, and its value can be ascertained with greater ease and certainty than any other.

4. Give us with all the world as perfect freedom of trade as now exists between the States of our Union, thus enabling our people to share, through free exchanges in all the advantages which nature has given to other countries, or which the peculiar skill of other peoples has enabled them to attain. It would destroy the trusts, monopolies, and corruptions which are the outgrowths of the tariff. It would do away with the fines and penalties now levied on any one who improves a farm, erects a house, builds a machine, or in any way adds to the general stock of wealth. It would leave every one free to apply labor or expend capital in production or exchange without fine or restriction, and would leave to each the full product of his exertion.

5. It would, on the other hand, by taking for public use that value which attaches to land by reason of the growth and improvement of the community, make the holding of land unprofitable to the mere owner, and profitable only to the user. It would thus make it impossible for speculators and monopolists to hold natural opportunities unused or only half used, and would throw open to labor the illimitable field of employment which the earth offers to man. It would thus solve the labor problem, do away with involuntary poverty, raise wages in all occupations to the full earnings of labor, make overproduction impossible until all human wants are satisfied, render labor-saving inventions a blessing to all, and cause such an enormous production and such an equitable distribution of wealth as would give to all comfort, leisure, and participation in the advantages of an advancing civilization.

With respect to monopolies other than the monopoly of land, we hold that where free competition becomes impossible, as in telegraphs, railroads, water and gas supplies, etc., such business becomes a proper social function, which should be controlled and managed by and for the whole people concerned, through their proper government, local, State, or national, as may be.

The single-tax adherents are at present far better organized as an aggressive force in England than in the United States. There the issue is brought prominently and persistently to the front, both in Parliament and elsewhere. In New Zealand, perhaps, the greatest advance has been made in the application of laws that have a genuine bearing upon the doctrine. These laws, of comparatively recent enactment, are looked upon by single-taxers as the "entering wedge," and the experiment is being watched with great interest. Single-tax measures are also being considered in several of our State legislatures, notably in Colorado.

Of the Anti-poverty Society, a remarkable association which held its first meeting in Chickering Hall, New York City, on May 1, 1887, a few words may be said. In the fall of 1886 Mr. George was the candidate of the United Labor party for the office of mayor of New York. Opposed to him on the side of the Democrats were Abram S. Hewitt (who was elected), and Theodore Roosevelt, Republican. Mr. George received 68,000 votes. DR. EDWARD MCGLYNN (*q. v.*), pastor of St. Stephen's Roman Catholic Church, was an ardent supporter of the single-tax doctrine, and made speeches on behalf of its candidate. His course displeased Archbishop Corrigan, and, having been publicly announced to speak at a meeting to be held in Chickering Hall early in October, he was formally forbidden by the archbishop to "attend the meeting or to take part in future in any political meeting whatever without permission of the Sacred Congregation Propaganda Fide." Dr. McGlynn disobeyed this order and spoke at the meeting. For this disobedience he was excommunicated, and an attempt was made to have the pope condemn the books written by and the doctrines held by Henry George. The controversy that arose over this matter caused intense excitement, not only in New York, but throughout the country. Anti-poverty societies were formed in Philadelphia, Chicago, St. Louis, Cincinnati, and other cities. These meetings were intensely religious in character, and were addressed by clergymen of many Christian denominations and in some instances by Hebrews. A full account of the society and of the addresses delivered by Dr. McGlynn and others may be found in the *Standard*, a weekly newspaper then published by Henry George, files of which have been deposited in the public libraries of New York, Boston, and St. Louis, and perhaps in other cities. Of the excommunication of Dr. McGlynn and of the subsequent lifting of the ban by an apostolic delegate of the Roman Catholic Church who was sent to the United States in 1892, the *Standard* and its successor, *The National Single-Taxer*, also contain full accounts. Dr. McGlynn did not recant nor did he cease to publicly and privately support the doctrine that individual ownership of land was against natural justice after he was reinstated to the office of the priesthood.

Among the current publications issued in support of single-tax doctrines in the United States are *The Public*, *Justice*, and the *Single-Tax Review*.

Sinking-fund, FIRST NATIONAL. Everything was done by the first Congress that could be to raise and sustain the public credit. For this purpose a sinking-fund for the reduction of the public debt was provided for. The funding act (see HAMILTON, ALEXANDER) required the interest on the public debt to be converted into capital. This left a considerable unappropriated sum to accumulate in the national treasury. Congress provided that all the surplus in the treasury on the last day of December (1790), after payment of the appropriations of the current session, should be applied to the reduction of the public debt. This sum, with $2,000,000 more which the President was authorized to borrow, was made to constitute a fund to be employed under the management of a board composed of the chief-justice, the president of the Senate, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Attorney-General, in the purchase of the securities of the United States at their market value, if not above par. The securities so purchased were to be vested in the board, and the interest thereon, by the provisions of a subsequent act, was to be applied to the purchase of further securities, with a reserve, however, towards the discharge of the borrowed $2,000,000, principal and interest. This measure was intended to raise the stock market so as to prevent the transfer of securities to Europe at depreciated rates.

Sioux, or Dakota, Indians, a large and powerful tribe of Indians, who were found by the French, in 1640, near the headwaters of the Mississippi River. The Algonquians called them *Nadowessioux*, whence they came to be called Sioux. They occupied the vast domain extending from the Arkansas River, in the south, to the western tributary of Lake Winnipeg, in the north, and westward to the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains. They have been classed into four grand divisions—namely, the Winnebagoes, who inhabited the country between Lake Michigan and

the Mississippi, among the Algonquians; the Assiniboines, or Sioux proper (the most northerly of the nation); the Minnetaree group, in Minnesota; and the Southern Sioux, who dwelt in the country between the Arkansas and Platte rivers, and whose hunting-grounds extended to the Rocky Mountains. In 1679 Jean Duluth, a French officer, set up the Gallic standard among them near Lake St. Peter, and Others remained on the shores of the St. Peter. Some of them wandered into the plains of Missouri, and there joined the Southern Sioux. In the War of 1812 the Sioux took sides with the British. In 1822 the population of the two divisions of the tribe was estimated at nearly 13,000. In 1837 they ceded to the United States all their lands east of the Mississippi, and in 1851 they ceded 35,000,000 acres west

A SIOUX VILLAGE.

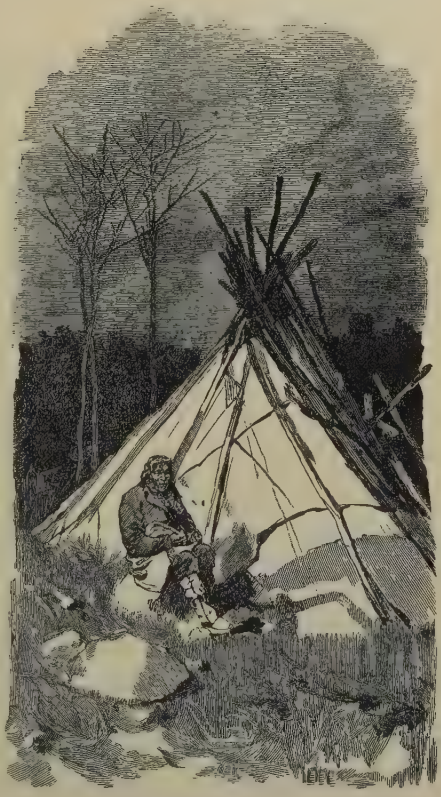
the next year he rescued from them Father Hennepin, who first explored the upper Mississippi. The French took formal possession of the country in 1685, when they were divided into seven eastern and nine western tribes.

In wars with the French and other Indians, they were pushed down the Mississippi, and, driving off the inhabitants of the buffalo plains, took possession. of the Mississippi for $3,000,000. The neglect of the government to carry out all the provisions of the treaties for these cessions caused much bitter feeling, and a series of hostilities by some of the Sioux ensued; but after being defeated by General Harney, in 1855, a treaty of peace was concluded. Enraged by the failure of the government to perform its part of the bargain and the frauds practised upon

A SIOUX IN WARRIOR COSTUME.

them, there was a general uprising of the Upper Sioux, in 1862, and nearly 1,000 settlers were killed. The Lower Sioux, of the plains, also became hostile, but all were finally subdued. Fully 1,000 were held captive, and thirty-nine were hanged.

Many bands fled into what was then Dakota Territory, and the strength of the nation was greatly reduced. The most guilty bands fled into the British dominions, while others, from time to time, attacked settlements and menaced forts. Loosely made treaties were violated on both sides. By one of these the Black Hills were made part of a reservation, but gold having been discovered there, the United States wished to purchase the tract, and induce the Indians to abandon that region and emigrate to the Indian Territory. They showed great reluctance to treat. Sitting Bull, Spotted Tail, and Red Cloud visited the national capital in 1875, but President Grant could not induce them to sign a treaty. Commissioners met an immense number of them at the Red Cloud agency, in September, but nothing was done. The sending of surveyors under a military escort to the Black Hills excited the jealousy of the Sioux, and they prepared for war. In the spring of 1876 a military force was sent against them, and in June a severe battle was fought, in which General Custer and all of his immediate command were slain.



A SIOUX MEDICINE CHIEF.

The Indians, after having been severely beaten in several encounters, returned, under full pardon, to their reservations.

The advancement made by the Christian or progressive portion of the Sioux Indians in the present South Dakota had long been regarded with disfavor by the pagan and conservative element under the leadership of Sitting Bull, Red Cloud, and Kicking Bear, and the latter eagerly waited for some pretext to bring the question of civilization or non-civilization to a decisive issue. In 1890 there was a failure on the part of the government to meet promptly some of its obligations to the Sioux, especially in the payment of annuities and of moneys due to the Indians for certain lands which they had sold. The crops, too, had failed; Congress had cut down the supplies; and there was naturally a feeling of dissatisfaction among the half-famished Indians. Inefficient agents also had been sent out by the government who had little regard for anything save their own personal gain, and not much was done by them to allay the general discontent. All these circumstances combined to favor the designs of Sitting Bull and his associates. A wide-spread conspiracy was formed, and plans were made for a general uprising in the spring.

SITTING BULL.

In September a Shoshoni Indian, a medicine-man, began to predict the coming of an Indian Messiah. The Great Manitou had taken pity upon his suffering children. The Messiah would roll thirty feet of soil, timbered and sodded, upon their white oppressors, and all who escaped being smothered thereby would become buffaloes and catfish. But all the dead Indians would be restored to life; their hunting-grounds would be as in former days; herds of buffaloes and wild horses would again abound upon the prairies; the Indian millennium would be inaugurated. These glowing predictions were eagerly listened to and believed by large numbers of Indians. Late in October they began a series of "ghost dances" in anticipation of the Messiah's coming; and, to show their devotion, the dancing was continued without intermission for five days and nights. To this delusion Sitting Bull gave every encouragement. His adherents arrayed themselves in war-paint, and provided an ample supply of guns and ammunition. They refused to report themselves at the different agencies, and a few of the most desperate began burning and pillaging near Wounded Knee, and afterwards escaped to the Bad Lands.

On Dec. 15 a body of Indian police, acting under orders from General Miles, attempted to arrest Sitting Bull in his camp, about 40 miles northwest of Fort Yates, N. D. A skirmish ensued, and in it the noted chieftain, together with his son Crowfoot and six other Indians, was killed. The remnant of the band made its way to the Bad Lands. On Dec. 28 a battle occurred near Wounded Knee, S. D.,

between a cavalry regiment and the men of Big Foot's band. Thirty of the whites were killed, while the Indian dead numbered over 200, including many of their women and children. Over 3,000 Indians then fled from the agency and encamped near White Clay Creek, where, on the next day, another encounter occurred. The result of this engagement was the dispersal of the Indians with heavy loss, and the death of eight soldiers of the 9th Cavalry. Several other skirmishes occurred during the week which followed, with loss of life on both sides. On Jan. 14, 1891, two councils were held with General Miles, drawn from the neighborhood of the reservation. On the 29th, a delegation of Sioux chiefs, under charge of Agent Lewis, arrived in Washington for the purpose of conferring with the Secretary of the Interior. The conference began on Feb. 7, and continued four days, at the close of which the Indians were received by President Harrison at the White House. They were assured that the cutting down of the congressional appropriation was an accident, and that the government desired faithfully to carry out every agreement made. On their return home the chiefs stopped for a short time at Carlisle, Pa.,

SIOUX ON THE WAR-PATH.

and the chiefs, seeing the hopelessness of their cause, agreed to surrender their arms and return to the agency. The war was practically ended, and on Jan. 21 the greater part of the troops were withdrawn. The children of several of them were attending school. In 1909 the United States and Canadian Indian officers placed the total number of Indians of Siouan stock at about 40,800.

Six Companies, an organization of Chinamen with headquarters in San Francisco, Cal., partly benevolent and partly commercial. Originally, they guaranteed to send back, dead or alive, the body of every Chinaman who sailed from home to this country, but they now ship back to China the bones only of those whose families desire those relics buried in the Flowery Kingdom.

Six Nations, a confederation of Indians, comprising originally the Five Nations—Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas—who were joined by their Southern brethren, the Tuscaroras, after the latter were signally defeated by the Carolinians in 1712.

The Senecas, and the Tories among them, who had taken refuge at Fort Niagara, continued depredations on the frontiers of New York and Pennsylvania. The Onondagas professed neutrality, but it was believed they shared in the hostilities of the Senecas. To chastise them for their suspected perfidy, a detachment was sent out from Fort Stanwix which smote them suddenly and destroyed their villages. The Indians retaliated by devastating the settlements in Schoharie county and the western border of Ulster county, N. Y. The Pennsylvania frontier, particularly in the vicinity of Pittsburgh, was exposed to similar incursions from the Indians of western New York. A grand campaign to chastise the hostile Six Nations was then inaugurated, and the expedition was led by Gen. John Sullivan (q. v.).

The confederacy had always claimed and enjoyed the right of free passage through the great valley west of the Blue Ridge. Some backwoodsmen of Virginia penetrated that valley, and, in 1743, came into collision with the Iroquois. War with the French was then threatened, and hostilities between any of the colonists and the Six Nations, at that juncture, might be perilous. Governor Clinton, of New York, hastened to secure the firm friendship of the confederacy by liberal presents, for which purpose, in conjunction with commissioners from New England, he held a meeting at Albany in June. The commissioners proposed an association of the five Northern colonies for mutual defence; but the Assembly of New York, hoping to secure the same neutrality enjoyed during the previous war, declined the proposition. The next year the difficulties between the Six Nations and the Virginians were settled by a treaty concluded at Lancaster (July 2), to which Pennsylvania and Maryland were parties. By the terms of this treaty, in consideration of $2,000, the Iroquois relinquished all title to the valley between the Blue Ridge and the central chain of the Alleghany Mountains. The lands in Maryland were, in like manner, transferred to Lord Baltimore, but with definite limits. By the deed to Virginia, the claim of that colony was extended indefinitely in the West and Northwest. In 1906–09 the Cayugas in New York numbered 175; the Mohawks, not reported; the Oneidas, 3,220; the Onondagas, 553; the Senecas, 2,749; the Tuscaroras, 364.

Skene, Philip, military officer; born in London, England, in 1725; entered the British army in 1739, and served against Porto Bello and Cartagena; also in Great Britain in the rebellion of 1745. He came to America in 1756, and was wounded in the attack on Ticonderoga. He was afterwards placed in command at Crown Point, and projected a settlement at the head of Lake Champlain, on the site of Whitehall. In the storming of Morro Castle (1762) he was one of the first to enter the breach. His settlement at the head of Lake Champlain was called Skenesboro, and in 1770 he made his residence there. Adhering to the crown, he was arrested in Philadelphia, but was exchanged in 1776. He accompanied Burgoyne's expedition, and was with the British force defeated at Bennington. He was taken prisoner at Saratoga. The legislature confiscated his property in 1779. He died in Bucks, England, June 10, 1810.

Skenesboro, Capture of (1775). After the capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point in 1775, Arnold was joined by about fifty recruits, who had seized a schooner and some cannon, with several prisoners, at Skenesboro (now Whitehall), at the head of Lake Champlain. In the captured schooner Arnold went down the lake, entered the Sorel River (its outlet), and, capturing an armed vessel and some valuable stores there, returned with them to Crown Point. A superior force at Mon-

treal compelled Arnold to abandon St. John.

Skinner, CORTLANDT, military officer; born in New Jersey in 1728; a grandson of Stephen Van Cortlandt, of Van Cortlandt's Manor, N. Y. In 1775 he was attorney-general of New Jersey. He organized three battalions of loyalists, called "New Jersey Volunteers," and was given the commission of brigadier-general. He went to England after the war, where he received compensation for losses as a loyalist, and a pension. He died in Bristol, England, in 1799.

Skinners, a predatory band in the Revolutionary War whose members professed to be Whigs, and who plundered the Tory families living on the Neutral Ground, in Westchester county, N. Y., between the British and American lines. They were not very scrupulous in their choice of victims, plunder being their chief aim. See COW-BOYS.

Skraelings, the name given by the Northmen to the Eskimos, in contempt, as it implies chips or dwarfs. Thorwald, a successor of Lief, in a voyage to America, spoke of finding Skrælings, who, because of a grave offence committed by the Northmen, attacked that navigator and his followers and compelled them to leave the beautiful country where they intended to settle. Thorwald was mortally wounded during the fray and was buried on the shore. The boats engaged in the attack on the Northmen were made of skins, like those used by the Eskimos now.

Slafter, EDMUND FARWELL, author; born in Norwich, Vt. May 30, 1816; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1840, and took a course in Andover Theological Seminary; was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1845; rector of St. John's, Boston, Mass., in 1846–53. Later he became register of the diocese of Massachusetts. His publications include *Sir William Alexander and American Colonization; Voyages of the Northmen to America; John Checkley, or the Evolution of Religious Tolerance in Massachusetts Bay; History and Causes of Incorrect Latitudes as Recorded in the Journals of Early Writers, Navigators, and Explorers;* numerous *Memoirs* and monographs on historical subjects, etc. He died in Hampton, N. H., Sept. 22, 1906.

Slater, JOHN FOX, philanthropist; born in Slatersville, R. I., March 4, 1815; was trained in the manufacture of cotton, in which his father had large interests; and on the death of his father succeeded to those interests. He early manifested an active concern in the cause of education. The gift by which he is best known was that of $1,000,000, made in April, 1882, for the purpose of "uplifting the lately emancipated population of the Southern States and their posterity." For this patriotic and munificent gift the thanks of Congress were voted, and a medal was presented. Neither principal nor income is expended for land or buildings. Education in industries and the preparation of teachers are promoted in institutions believed to be on a permanent basis. The fund is a potential agency in working out the problem of the education of the negro, and over half a million of dollars has already been expended. By the extraordinary fidelity and financial ability of the treasurer, the fund, while keeping up annual appropriations, has increased to $1,500,000. Schools established by States, denominations, and individuals are helped by annual donations. Among the most prominent are the Hampton Normal and Industrial Institute, Claflin University, Fisk University, Spelman Seminary, Tuskegee Institute, and schools at Orangeburg, S. C.; Tougaloo, Miss.; Marshall, Tex.; Raleigh, N. C.; New Orleans, Meharry College at Nashville, etc. Mr. Slater died in Norwich, Conn., May 7, 1884.

Slater, SAMUEL, manufacturer; born in Belper, Derbyshire, England, June 9, 1768; was apprenticed to cotton-spinning under Strutt, partner of Sir Richard Arkwright, the inventor of spinning machinery. One of the first acts of the national Congress in 1789 was for the encouragement of American manufacturers, and the legislature of Pennsylvania offered a bounty for the introduction of the Arkwright patents. Young Slater heard of this and believed that his thorough mastery of Arkwright's machinery would enable him to build a machine without models or drawings. He hastened to America and landed in New York in November, 1789. Heavy penalties deterred any one from making a model or drawing and sending it out of the country. Slater accidentally learned that Moses

Brown, of Rhode Island, had made some attempts at cotton-spinning by machinery there. He wrote to Mr. Brown, informing him of what he could do. "If thou canst do this thing," wrote the earnest manufacturer, "I invite thee to come to Rhode Island and have the credit and the profit of introducing cotton-manufacture into America." Slater went, and, with the aid of the Brown family, succeeded in producing machinery, by the close of 1790, that made cotton-yarn equal in quality to the best then made in England. Slater secured both the "credit and the profit" of introducing cotton manufacture into the United States. Within six years Slater had many persons at work for him, and established a Sabbath-school for the benefit of these and their children. His first mill was set up at Pawtucket. In 1812 he began the building of mills at Oxford (now Webster), which soon became a large establishment. He died in Webster, Mass., April 21, 1835.

SAMUEL SLATER.

Slaughter, PHILIP, clergyman; born in Springfield, Va., Oct. 26, 1808; studied in the University of Virginia and was admitted to the bar in 1828. Later he took a course in the Episcopal Theological Seminary, Alexandria, Va.; was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1835, and served in various pastorates till 1848, when his health failed. His publications include *Life of Randolph Fairfax; Life of Col. Joshua Fry, Sometime Professor in William and Mary College, Virginia, and Washington's Senior in Command of Virginia Forces in 1754; The Colonial Church of Virginia; Christianity the Key to the Character of Washington*; etc. He died in 1890.

Slaughter-house Cases. On March 8, 1869, the legislature of Louisiana passed an act incorporating a Live-stock Landing and Slaughter-house Company, whereby it imposed upon that company the duty of erecting stock-yards, slaughter-houses, etc.; made it the duty of that company to permit any person to slaughter animals in its slaughter-houses, under a heavy penalty for each refusal; fixed the limits of charges for each animal slaughtered; provided for the inspection by an officer appointed by the governor of the State of all animals to be slaughtered, and ordered the closing up of all other stock-landings and slaughter-houses within certain territory, including the city of New Orleans. The Butchers' Benevolent Association of New Orleans and others who had been long engaged in butchering in that city sought to resist the Slaughter-house Company in the exercise of its powers, on the ground that the act of the legislature was in violation of the Constitution of the United States, in that "it creates an involuntary servitude forbidden by the Thirteenth Article of Amendment; that it abridges the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States; that it denies to plaintiffs the equal protection of the laws; and that it deprives them of their property without due process of law, contrary to the provisions of the first section of the Fourteenth Article of Amendment." The Supreme Court of the State of Louisiana decided the cases in favor of the Slaughter-house Company, and the butchers brought the cases to the Supreme Court of the United States by writs of error. There the decision of the Louisiana court was affirmed on the ground that the act in question was a proper exercise of the police power of the State. Chief-Justice Chase and Justices Field, Swayne, and Bradley dissented. The case is valuable for the elaborate discussions of the amendments to the Constitution and the subject of monopolies.

Slavery. In 1562 John Hawkins, an English navigator, seeing the want of slaves in the West Indies, determined to enter upon the piratical traffic. Several London gentlemen contributed funds liberally for the enterprise. Three ships were provided, and with these and 100 men Hawkins sailed to the coast of Guinea, where, by bribery, deception, treachery, and force, he procured at least 300 negroes and sold them to the Spaniards in Hispaniola, or Santo Domingo, and returned to England with a rich freight of pearls, sugar, and ginger. The nation was shocked by the barbarous traffic, and the Queen (Elizabeth) declared to Hawkins that, "if any of the Africans were carried away without their own consent, it would be detestable, and call down the vengeance of Heaven upon the undertakers." He satisfied the Queen and continued the traffic, pretending that it was for the good of the souls of the Africans, as it introduced them to Christianity and civilization.

Already negro slaves had been introduced by the Spaniards into the West Indies. They first enslaved the natives, but these were unequal to the required toil, and they were soon almost extinguished by hard labor and cruelty. Charles V. of Spain granted a license to a Fleming to import 4,000 negroes annually into the West Indies. He sold his license to Genoese merchants, who began a regular trade in human beings between Africa and the West Indies. These were found to thrive where the native laborers died. The benevolent Las Casas (see LAS CASAS, BARTOLOMÉ DE) and others favored the system as a means for saving the Indian tribes from destruction; and the trade was going on briskly when the English, under the influence of Hawkins, engaged in it in 1562. Ten years before a few negroes had been sold in England, and it is said that Queen Elizabeth's scruples were so far removed that she shared in the profits of the traffic carried on by Englishmen. The Stuart kings of England chartered companies for the trade; and Charles II. and his brother James were members of one of them.

After the revolution of 1688 the trade was thrown open, and in 1713 an English company obtained the privilege of supplying the Spanish colonies in America, South and Central, for thirty years, stipulating to deliver 144,000 negro slaves within that period. One quarter of the stock of the company was taken by King Philip V. of Spain, and Queen Anne of England reserved for herself the other quarter. So the two monarchs became great slave-dealers.

The first slaves were introduced into the English-American colonies by a Dutch trader, who, in 1619, sold twenty of them to the settlers at Jamestown, Va. After that the trade between North America and Africa was carried on quite vigorously; but some of the colonies remonstrated, and in the Continental Congress, and also in the public mind, there was a strong desire evinced to abolish the slave-trade. Lawrence and Cassandra Southwick were banished from the colony of Massachusetts, in 1658, under penalty of death if they should return. Their crime was the embracing of the principles and mode of worship of the Quakers. Their two children remained behind in extreme poverty. They were fined for non-attendance upon the public worship carried on by their persecutors. The magistrates insisted that the fine must be paid, and passed the following order: "Whereas, Daniel Southwick and Provided Southwick, son and daughter of Lawrence Southwick, absenting themselves from the public ordinances, having been fined by the courts of Salem and Ipswich, pretending they have no estates, and resolving not to work, the court, upon perusal of a law which was made upon account of debts, in what should be done for the satisfaction of the fines, resolves, that the treasurers of the several counties are and shall be fully empowered to sell said persons to any of the English natives at Virginia or Barbadoes to answer the said fines." Endicott, it is said, urged the execution of the measure with vehemence; but, to the honor of the marine service, not a sea-captain in the port of Boston could be induced to become a slave-dealer to please the General Court. They were spared the usual brutal whipping of contumacious persons as a special mark of humanity.

In 1662 the Virginia Assembly passed a law that children should be held, bond or free, "according to the condition of the mother." This was to meet the case of

mulatto children, born of black mothers, in the colony. It was thought right to hold heathen Africans in slavery; but, as mulattoes must be part Christians, a knotty question came up, for the English law in relation to serfdom declared the slaves were then subjected to civil disabilities.

In 1663 the Maryland legislature enacted a law that "all negroes and other slaves within the province, and all negroes and other slaves to be thereafter import-

A COLONIAL SLAVE-MARKET IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

condition of the child must be determined by that of the father. The Virginia law opposed this doctrine in favor of the slave-holders. Some of the negroes brought into Virginia were converted to Christianity and baptized. The question was raised, "Is it lawful to hold Christians as slaves?" The General Assembly came to the relief of the slave-holders by enacting a law that slaves, though converted and baptized, should not therefore become free. It was also enacted that killing a slave by his master by "extreme correction" should not be esteemed a felony, since it might not be presumed that "malice prepense" would "induce any man to destroy his own estate." It was also enacted, as an evasion of the statute prohibiting the holding of Indians as slaves, "that all servants, not being Christians, imported by shipping, shall be slaves for life." Indian slaves, under this law, were imported from New England and the West Indies. Freed

ed into the province, should serve during life; and all children born of any negro should be slaves, as their fathers were, for the term of their lives." The same law recited that "divers free-born English-women, forgetful of their free condition, and to the disgrace of the nation, did intermarry with negro slaves," and it was enacted for deterring from such "shameful matches" that, during their husbands' lives, white women so intermarrying should be servants to the masters of their husbands, and that the issue of such marriages should be slaves for life.

In 1681 the legislature of Maryland passed a new act to remedy the evils of intermarrying of whites and blacks. The preamble recited that such matches were often brought about by the instigation or connivance of the master or mistress, who took advantage of the former law to prolong the servitude of their white feminine servants, and at the same time to raise

up a brood of mulatto slaves. The new law enacted that all white feminine servants intermarrying with negro slaves were free, at once, after the nuptials, and their children also; and that the minister celebrating and the master or mistress promoting or conniving at such marriages were subjected to a fine of 10,000 pounds of tobacco.

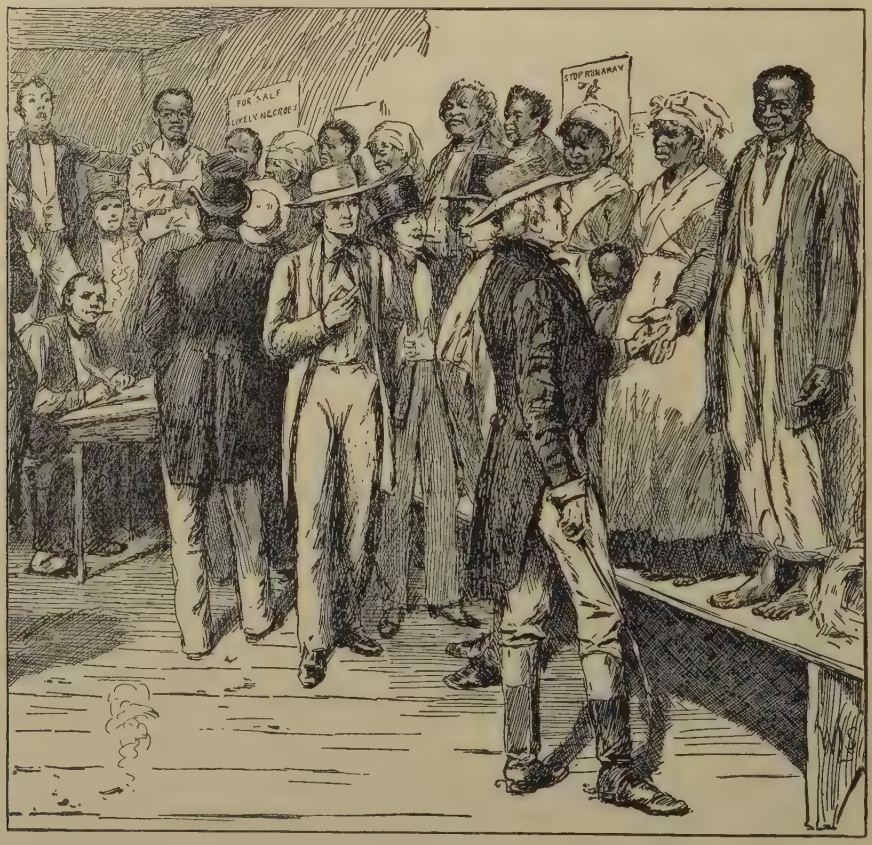
In 1682 the slave code of Virginia received additions. It was enacted that runaways who refused to be arrested might be lawfully killed. Slaves were forbidden to carry arms, offensive or defensive, or to go off the plantations of their masters without a written pass, or to lift a hand against a Christian, even in self-defence. The condition of slavery was imposed upon all servants, whether "negroes, Moors, mulattoes, or Indians, brought into the colony by sea or land, whether converted to Christianity or not, provided they were not of Christian parentage or country, or, if Turks or Moors, in amity with his Majesty." Nearly a century afterwards Virginia tried to suppress the traffic in African slaves, and in 1761 it was proposed in her legislature to suppress the importation of Africans by levying a prohibitory duty. Danger to the political interest of that colony was foreboded by her wisest men in the continuance of the trade. An act for levying the tax was passed by the Assembly, but in England it met the fate of similar bills from other colonies to suppress the nefarious traffic. It was sent back with a veto.

The King in council, on Dec. 10, 1770, issued an instruction, under his own hand, commanding the governor of Virginia, "upon pain of the highest displeasure, to assent to no law by which the importation of slaves should be in any respect prohibited or obstructed." In 1772 the Virginia Assembly earnestly discussed the question, "How shall we get rid of the great evil?" Jefferson, Henry, Lee, and other leading men anxiously desired to rid the colony of it. "The interest of the country," it was said, "manifestly requires the total expulsion of them." The Assembly finally resolved to address the King himself on the subject, who, in council, had compelled the toleration of the traffic. They pleaded with him to remove all restraints upon their efforts to stop the importation of slaves, which they called "a very pernicious commerce." In this matter Virginia represented the sentiments of all the colonies, and the King knew it; but the monarch "stood in the path of humanity and made himself the pillar of the colonial slave-trade." Ashamed to reject the earnest and solemn appeal of the Virginians, he evaded a reply. The conduct of the King caused Jefferson to write as follows in his first draft of the Declaration of Independence: "He has waged cruel war against human nature itself, violating its most sacred rights of life and liberty in the persons of a distant people who never offended him, capturing and carrying them into slavery in another hemisphere, or to incur a miserable death in their transportation thither. This piratical warfare, the opprobrium of infidel powers, is the warfare of the *Christian* King of Great Britain. Determined to keep open a market where men should be bought and sold, he has prostituted his negative for suppressing every legislative attempt to prohibit or to restrain this execrable commerce." This paragraph was stricken out of the Declaration of Independence before the committee submitted it to a vote of the Congress.

The unwise regulations of the trustees of Georgia, which crushed incentives to industry and thrift, and other causes which exist in all new settlements, made that colony languish. The settlers saw the prosperity of their neighbors in South Carolina, and attributed the difference to the positive prohibition of slavery in Georgia. This became their leading grievance, and even Whitefield advocated the introduction of slavery, under the old (and later) pretence of propagating, in that way, Christianity among the heathen Africans. Habersham, too, advocated the introduction. "Many of the poor slaves in America," he wrote, "have already been made freemen of the heavenly Jerusalem." The Germans were assured by their friends in Germany of its harmlessness. Word came to them in 1749: "If you take slaves in faith and with the intent of conducting them to Christ, the action will not be a sin, but may prove a benediction." So it was that avarice subdued conscience. Already slaves had been introduced into Georgia

from South Carolina as hired servants, under indentures for life, or for ninety-nine years; and at Savannah the continual toast was, "The one thing needful," which meant negro slaves. Leading men among the Scotch and Germans who opposed the introduction of slavery were threatened and persecuted. Under great pressure, the trustees yielded, and slavery was introduced on the condition that all masters should be obliged to compel the negroes to "attend, at some time on the Lord's day, for instruction in the Christian religion." In 1752 the charter was surrendered to the crown, the colony had all the privileges accorded to others, and flourished.

To completely enslave the English-American colonies, the British Parliament, in 1750, gave liberty to trade in negroes, as slaves, to and from any part of Africa between Sallee, in South Barbary, and the Cape of Good Hope, to all the subjects of the King of England. This was designed to fill the colonies with slaves, who should neither trouble Great Britain with fears of encouraging political independence nor compete with their industry with British workshops; neither would they leave their employers the entire security that might enable them to prepare a revolt.



A SLAVE AUCTION IN NEW ORLEANS.

James Somerset, a negro slave of James Stewart, was taken from Virginia to England, where he refused to serve his master any longer. Stewart caused him

to be arrested and put on board a vessel to be conveyed to Jamaica. Being brought before Chief-Justice Mansfield on a writ of *habeas corpus* (December, 1771), his

SLAVES ON A PLANTATION.

case was referred to the full court, where it was argued for the slave by the great philanthropist, Granville Sharp. The decision would affect the estimated number of 14,000 slaves then with their masters in England, involving a loss to their owners of $3,500,000. After a careful judicial investigation of the subject in its legal aspects, Chief-Justice Mansfield gave the decision of the court that slavery was contrary to the laws of England—that slavery could not exist there. "Whatever inconveniences, therefore, may follow from the decision," he said, "I cannot say this case is allowed or approved by the law of England, and therefore the black must be discharged."

The question of prohibiting the African slave-trade by a provision in the national Constitution caused much and warm debate in the convention that framed that instrument. A compromise was agreed to by the insertion of a clause (art. I., sec. 9, clause 1) in the Constitution, as follows: "The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight; but a tax, or duty, may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person." The idea of prohibiting the African slave-trade, then warmly advocated, was not new. In 1774 the Continental Congress, while releasing the colonies from other provisions of the AMERICAN ASSOCIATION (*q. v.*), had expressly resolved "that no slave be imported into any of the United States." Delaware, by her constitution, and Virginia and Maryland by special laws, had prohibited the importation of slaves. Similar prohibitions were in force in all the more northern States; but they did not prevent the merchants of those States from carrying on the slave-trade else-

where, and already some New England ships were engaged in a traffic from the African coast to Georgia and South Carolina. These States were forgetful of or indifferent to the pledges they had made through their delegates in the face of the world by their concurrence in the Declaration of Independence, and seemed fully determined to maintain not only the slave system of labor, but the nefarious slave-trade. North Carolina did not prohibit the traffic, but denounced the further importation of slaves into the State as "highly impolitic," and imposed a heavy duty on future importations.

On the demand of Henry Laurens, of South Carolina, who entered into the negotiations for a preliminary treaty of peace, at a late hour, a clause in the treaty (1782) was interlined, prohibiting, in the British evacuation, the "carrying away any negroes or other property of the inhabitants." So this treaty of peace, in which no word had, excepting indirectly, indicated the existence of slavery in the United States, made known to the world that men could be held as property.

The legislature of Connecticut, early in 1784, passed an act that no negro or mulatto child born within that State after March 1 that year should be held in servitude longer than until the age of twenty-five years.

In 1788 the captain of a vessel in Boston seized three colored persons, took them to the West Indies, and sold them there for slaves. This event caused the legislature of Massachusetts to pass a law to prevent the slave-trade in that State, and for granting relief to the families of such persons as may be kidnapped or decoyed from the commonwealth. The law subjected to a heavy penalty any person who should forcibly take or detain any negro for the purpose of transportation as a slave, and the owner of the vessel in which such kidnapped man should be carried away incurred, also, a heavy penalty. The insurance on the vessel was made void; and the relatives of the person kidnapped, if the latter were sold into slavery in a distant country, were allowed to prosecute for the crime.

On May 12, 1789, a tariff bill having been reported to Congress, and being under discussion on the question of its second reading, Parker, of Virginia, moved to insert a clause imposing a duty of $10 on every slave imported. "He was sorry," he said, "the Constitution prevented Congress from prohibiting the importation altogether. It was contrary to revolutionary principles, and ought not to be permitted." A warm debate ensued. It called forth the opposition of South Carolinians and Georgians particularly. Jackson, of Georgia, made a vehement speech in opposition, in the course of which he said he hoped the proposition would be withdrawn, and that if it should be brought forward again it would comprehend "the white slaves as well as the black imported from all the jails of Europe — wretches convicted of the most flagrant crimes, who were brought in and sold without any duty whatever." This was an allusion to the indentured white servants who were sold by the captains of vessels on their arrival here to pay the cost of their passage, a practice which had beeen put a stop to by the Revolutionary War, but partially revived. The motion was finally withdrawn.

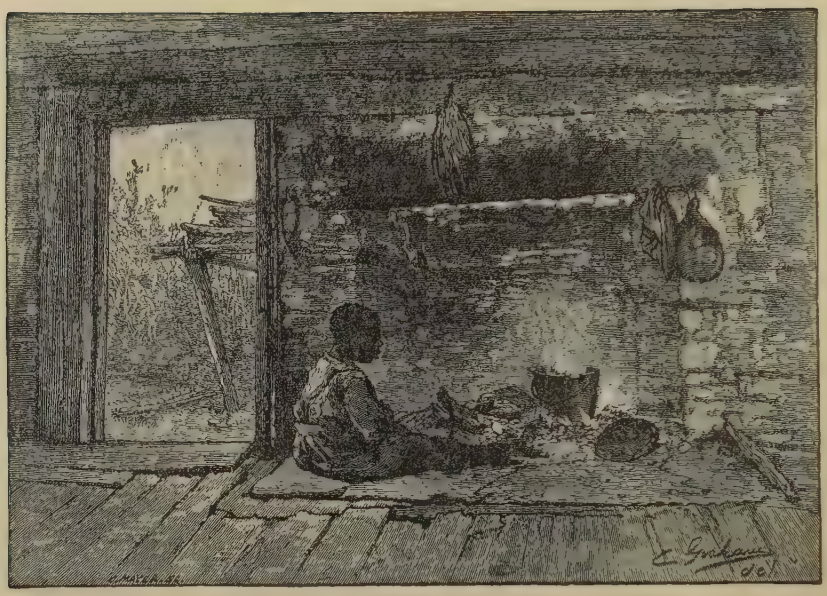
In 1804 a provision was inserted into the act organizing the Territory of Orleans, that no slaves should be carried thither, except from some part of the United States, by citizens removing into the Territory as actual settlers, this permission not to extend to negroes introduced into the United States since 1798. The object of this provision was to guard against the effects of an act recently adopted by the legislature of South Carolina for reviving the slave-trade after a cessation of it, as to that State, for fifteen years, and of six years as to the whole Union. This was a consequence of the vast increase and profitableness of cotton culture, made so by Whitney's cotton-gin.

On Feb. 15, 1804, the legislature of New Jersey, by an almost unanimous vote, passed an act to abolish slavery in that State by securing freedom to all persons born there after July 4 next ensuing, the children of slave parents to become free, masculine at twenty-five years of age, feminine at twenty-one.

The rapid extension of settlements in the Southwest after the War of 1812–15, and the great profits derived there from

the cultivation of cotton, not only caused the revival of the African slave-trade, in spite of prohibitory laws, but it gave occasion to a rival domestic slave-trade, of which the national capital had become one of the centres, where it was carried on by professional traffickers in human beings. They bought up the slaves of impoverished planters of Maryland and Virginia, and sold them at large profits in the cotton-growing districts of the South and West. This new traffic, which included many of the worst features of the African slave-trade, was severely denounced by John Randolph, of Virginia, as "heinous and abominable, inhuman and illegal." This opinion was founded on facts reported by a committee of inquiry. Gov. D. R. Williams, of South Carolina, denounced the traffic as "remorseless and cruel"; a "ceaseless dragging along the streets and highways of a crowd of suffering victims to minister to insatiable avarice," condemned alike by "enlightened humanity, wise policy, and the prayers of the just." The governor urged that it had a tendency to introduce slaves of all descriptions from other States, "defiling the delightful avocations of private life" "by the presence of convicts and malefactors." The legislature of South Carolina passed an act forbidding the introduction of slaves from other States. A similar act was passed by the Georgia legislature. This legislation was frequently resorted to on occasions of alarm, but the profitable extension of cotton cultivation and the demand for slave labor overcame all scruples. Within two years after its passage the prohibitory act of South Carolina was repealed. The inter-State slave-traffic was carried on extensively until slavery was abolished in 1863. A Richmond newspaper, in 1861, urging Virginia to join the Southern Confederacy, which had prohibited the traffic between them and States that would not join them, gave as a most urgent reason for such an act that, if it were not accomplished, the "Old Dominion" would lose

SLAVE CABIN ON A PLANTATION.



INTERIOR OF A SLAVE CABIN.

this trade, amounting annually to from $13,000,000 to $20,000,000.

When Admiral Cockburn began his marauding expedition on the American coast in the spring of 1813, he held out a promise of freedom to all slaves who should join his standard. Many were seduced on board his vessels, but found themselves wretchedly deceived. Intelligence of these movements reached the plantations farther south, and, in the summer of 1813, secret organizations were formed among the slaves to receive and co-operate with Cockburn's army of liberation, as they supposed it to be. One of these secret organizations met regularly on St. John's Island, near Charleston. Their leader was a man of great sagacity and influence, and their meetings were opened and closed by singing a hymn composed by that leader—a sort of parody of *Hail Columbia*. The following is the last of the three stanzas of the hymn alluded to:

"Arise! arise! shake off your chains!
Your cause is just, so Heaven ordains;
To you shall freedom be proclaimed!

Raise your arms and bare your breasts,
Almighty God will do the rest.
Blow the clarion's warlike blast;
Call every negro from his task;
Wrest the scourge from Buckra's hand,
And drive each tyrant from the land!

(*Chorus.*)

"Firm, united let us be.
Resolved on death or liberty!
As a band of patriots joined,
Peace and plenty we shall find."

They held meetings every night, and had arranged a plan for the rising of all the slaves in Charleston when the British should appear. At one of the meetings the question, "What shall be done with the white people?" was warmly discussed. Some advocated their indiscriminate slaughter as the only security for liberty, and this seemed to be the prevailing opinion, when the leader and the author of the hymn came in and said: "Brethren, you know me. You know that I am ready to gain your liberty and mine. But not one needless drop of blood must be shed. I have a master whom I love, and the man who takes his life must pass over my dead body." Had Cockburn been faithful to his promises to the negroes, and landed and declared freedom to the slaves of South Carolina, no doubt many thousands of colored people would have

flocked to his standard. But he was content to fill his pockets by plundering and carrying on a petty slave-trade for his private gain.

On March 13, 1824, articles of convention between the United States and Great Britain were signed at London, by diplomatists appointed for the purpose, providing for the adoption of measures to suppress the African slave-trade. The first article provided that the commanders and commissioned officers of each of the two contracting powers, duly authorized to cruise on the coast of Africa, of America, and of the West Indies, for the suppression of the slave-traffic, were empowered, under certain restrictions, to detain, examine, capture, and deliver over for trial and adjudication by some competent tribunal, any ship or vessel concerned in the illicit traffic in slaves, and carrying the flag of either nation. This convention was signed by Richard Rush for the United States, and by W. Huskisson and Sir Stratford Canning for Great Britain.

On March 6, 1857, Roger B. Taney, chief-justice of the United States, and a majority of his associates in the Supreme Court, uttered an extra-judicial opinion, that any person who had been a slave, or was a descendant of a slave, could not enjoy the rights of citizenship in the United States. Five years afterwards (1862) Secretary Seward issued a passport to a man who had been a slave to travel abroad as "a citizen of the United States." Six years later still (July 20, 1868) the national Constitution was so amended that all persons, of whatever race or color, born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. By the same amendment every civil right was given to every such person. And by a subsequent amendment (1869) it was decreed that "the rights of any of the citizens of the United States, or any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude should not be abridged."

By a provision of the national Constitution the foreign slave-trade in the United States was abolished, and Congress declared it to be "piracy." Encouraged by the practical sympathy of the national government, the friends of the slave-labor system formed plans for its perpetuity, which practically disregarded the plain requirements of the fundamental law. They resolved to reopen the African slave-trade. Africans were kidnapped in their native country, brought across the sea, and landed on our shores as in colonial times, and placed in perpetual slavery. In Louisiana, leading citizens engaged in a scheme for legalizing the traffic, under the guise of what they called the African Labor-supply Association, of which James B. De Bow, editor of *De Bow's Review*, published in New Orleans, was president. His *Review* was the acknowledged organ of the slaveholders, and wielded extensive and powerful influence when the flames of the Civil War were kindling. In Georgia, negroes from Africa were landed and sold, and when a grand jury at Savannah was compelled by law to find several bills against persons engaged in the traffic, or charged with complicity in the slave-trade, they protested against the law they were compelled to support. "We feel humbled," they said, "as men, conscious that we are born freemen but in name, and that we are living, during the existence of such laws, under a tyranny as supreme as that of the despotic governments of the Old World. Heretofore the people of the South, firm in their consciousness of right and strength, have failed to place the stamp of condemnation upon such laws as reflect upon the institution of slavery, but have permitted, unrebuked, the influence of foreign opinion to prevail." The *True Southron*, published in Mississippi, suggested the "propriety of stimulating the zeal of the pulpit by founding a prize for the best sermon on free-trade in negroes." This proposition was approved, and pulpits exhibited zeal in the cause. James H. Thornwell, D.D., president of the Presbyterian Theological Seminary in Columbus, S. C., asserted his conviction that the African slave-trade formed the most worthy of all missionary societies. Southern legislatures and conventions openly discussed the subject of reopening the slave-trade. The Southern Commercial Convention, held in Vicksburg, Miss., May 11, 1859, resolved, by a vote of 47 to

SCENE IN A SOUTHERN SLAVE TOWN.

16, that "all laws, State or federal, prohibiting the African slave-trade ought to be abolished." It was warmly advocated by several men who became Confederate leaders in the Civil War. The late JOHN SLIDELL (*q. v.*), of Louisiana, urged in the United States Senate the propriety of withdrawing American cruisers from the coasts of Africa, that the slave-trade might not be interfered with by them. When, in the summer of 1858, it was known that the traffic was to be carried on actively by the African Labor-supply Association, the British cruisers in the Gulf of Mexico were unusually vigilant, and in the course of a few weeks boarded about fifty American vessels suspected of being slavers. The influence of the slave-holders was brought to bear so powerfully upon the administration that the government protested against what it was pleased to call the "odious British doctrine of the right of search." The British government, for "prudential reasons," put a stop to the practice and laid the blame on the officers of the cruisers.

On April 7, 1862, a treaty was concluded between the United States and Great Britain for the suppression of the African slave-trade, and signed at the city of Washington, D. C. By it ships of the respective nations should have the right of search of suspected slave-ships; but that right was restricted to vessels of war authorized expressly for that object, and in no case to be exercised with respect

to a vessel of the navy of either of the powers, but only as regards merchant vessels. Nothing was done under this treaty, as the emancipation proclamation and other circumstances made action unnecessary.

In his annual message to the Confederate Congress (Nov. 7, 1864), President Davis drew a gloomy picture of the condition of the Confederate finances and the military strength. He showed that the Confederate debt was $1,200,000,000, without a real basis of credit, and a paper currency depreciated several hundred per cent. It had been recommended, as the enlistments and conscriptions of the white people failed to make up losses in the

SCENE ON A PLANTATION.

Confederate army, to arm the slaves; but this was considered too dangerous, for they would be more likely to fight for the Nationals than for the Confederates. Davis was averse to a general arming of the negroes, but he recommended the employment of 40,000 of them as pioneer and engineer laborers in the army, and not as soldiers, excepting in the last extremity. "Should the alternative ever be presented," he said, "of a subjugation, or the employment of the slave as a soldier, there seems to be no reason to doubt what should then be the decision"; and he suggested the propriety of holding out to the negro, as an inducement for him to give faithful service, even as a laborer in the army, a promise of his emancipation at the end of the war. These propositions and suggestions disturbed the slaveholders, for they indicated an acknowledgment on the part of "the government" that the cause was reduced to the alternative of liberating the slaves and relying upon them to secure the independence of the Confederacy, or of absolute subjugation. There was wide-spread discontent; and when news of the re-election of President Lincoln, by an unprecedented majority, reached the people, they yearned for peace rather than for independence.

The following is the full text of the fugitive-slave law of 1850:

An act to amend and supplementary to the act entitled "An act respecting fugitives from justice and persons escaping from the service of their masters," approved Feb. 12, 1793.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of

America in Congress assembled, that the persons who have been or may hereafter be appointed commissioners in virtue of any act of Congress, by the circuit courts of the United States, and who, in consequence of such appointment, are authorized to exercise the powers that any justice of the peace, or other magistrate of any of the United States, may exercise in respect to offenders for any crime or offence against the United States, by arresting, imprisoning, or bailing, the same, under and by virtue of the thirty-third section of the act of the 24th of September, 1789, entitled, "An act to establish the judicial courts of the United States," shall be, and are hereby authorized and required to exercise and discharge all the powers and duties conferred by this act.

Sec. 2. And be it further enacted, that the superior court of each organized territory of the United States shall have the same power to appoint commissioners to take acknowledgments of bail and affidavits, and to take depositions of witnesses in civil causes, which is now possessed by the Circuit Court of the United States; and all commissioners who shall hereafter be appointed for such purposes by the superior court of any organized Territory of the United States, shall possess all the powers, and exercise all the duties, conferred by the law upon commissioners appointed by the United States for similar purposes, and shall moreover exercise and discharge all the powers and duties conferred by this act.

Sec. 3. And be it further enacted, that the circuit courts of the United States, and the superior courts of each organized Territory of the United States, shall from time to time enlarge the number of commissioners, with a view to reasonable facilities to reclaim fugitives from labor, and to the prompt discharge of the duties imposed by this act.

Sec. 4. And be it further enacted, that the commissioners above-named shall have concurrent jurisdiction with the judges of the circuit and district courts of the United States in their respective circuits and districts within the several States, and the judges of the superior courts of the Territories, severally and collectively, in term-time and vacation, shall grant certificates to such claimants, upon satisfactory proof being made, with authority to take and remove such fugitives from such service or labor, under the restrictions herein contained, to the State or Territory from which such persons may have escaped or fled.

Sec. 5. And be it further enacted, that it shall be the duty of all marshals and deputy marshals to obey and execute all warrants and precepts issued under the provisions of this act, when to them directed; and should any marshal or deputy marshal refuse to receive such warrant or other process when tendered, or to use all proper means diligently to execute the same, he shall, on conviction thereof, be fined in the sum of $1,000, to the use of such claimant, on the motion of such claimant, by the circuit or district court for the district of such marshal; and after arrest of such fugitive by such marshal or his deputy, or whilst at any time in his custody under the provisions under this act, should such fugitive escape, whether with or without the assent of such marshal or his deputy, such marshal shall be liable on his official bond to be prosecuted for the benefit of such claimant for the full value of the service or labor of said fugitive, in the State, Territory, or district whence he escaped; and the better to enable the said commissioners, when thus appointed, to execute their duties faithfully and efficiently in conformity with the requirements of the Constitution of the United States and of this act, they are hereby authorized and empowered, within their counties, respectively, to appoint, in writing, under their hands, any one or more suitable persons, from time to time, to execute all such warrants and other process as may be issued by them in the lawful performance of their respective duties, with authority to such commissioners, or the persons to be appointed by them, to execute process as aforesaid to summon and call to their aid the bystanders, or *posse comitatus* of the proper county, when necessary to insure a faithful observance of the clause of the Constitution referred to, in conformity with this act; and all good citizens are hereby commanded to aid and assist in the prompt and efficient execution of this law, whenever their services may be required, as aforesaid, for that purpose; and

said warrants shall run and be executed by said officers anywhere in the State within which they are issued.

Sec. 6. And be it further enacted, that when a person held to service or labor in any State or Territory of the United States has heretofore or shall hereafter escape into another State or Territory of the United States, the person or persons to whom such service or labor may be due, or his, her, or their agent or attorney, duly authorized by power of attorney, in writing, acknowledged and certified under the seal of some legal officer or court of the State or Territory in which the same may be executed, may pursue and reclaim such fugitive person, either by procuring a warrant from some one of the courts, judges, or commissioners aforesaid, of the proper circuit, district, or county, for the apprehension of such fugitive from service or labor, or by seizing or arresting such fugitive, where the same can be done without process, and by taking, or causing such person to be taken, forthwith before such court, judge, or commissioner, whose duty it shall be to hear and determine the case of such claimant in a summary manner; and upon satisfactory proof being made, by deposition or affidavit, in writing, to be taken and certified by such court, judge, or commissioner, or by other satisfactory testimony, duly taken and certified by some court, magistrate, justice of the peace, or other legal officer authorized to administer an oath and take depositions under the laws of the State or Territory from which such person owing service or labor may have escaped, with a certificate of such magistracy or other authority, as aforesaid, with the seal of the proper court or officer thereto attached, which seal shall be sufficient to establish the competency of the proof, and with proof, also by affidavit, of the identity of the person whose service or labor is claimed to be due, as aforesaid, that the person so arrested does in fact owe service or labor to the person or persons claiming him or her, in the State or Territory from which such fugitive may have escaped as aforesaid, and that said person escaped, to make out and deliver to such claimant, his or her agent or attorney, a certificate setting forth the substantial facts as to the service or labor due from such fugitive to the claimant, and of his or her escape from the State or Territory in which such service or labor was due, to the State or Territory in which he or she was arrested, with authority to such claimant, or his or her agent or attorney, to use such reasonable force and restraint as may be necessary, under the circumstances of the case, to take and remove such fugitive person back to the State or Territory whence he or she may have escaped as aforesaid. In no trial or hearing, under this act, shall the testimony of such alleged fugitive be admitted in evidence; and the certificates in this and the first section mentioned shall be conclusive of the right of the person or persons in whose favor granted, to remove such fugitive to the State or Territory from which he escaped, and shall prevent all molestation of such person or persons, by any process issued by any court, judge, magistrate, or other persons whomsoever.

Sec. 7. And be it further enacted, that any person who shall knowingly and willingly obstruct, hinder, or prevent such claimant, his agent or attorney, or any person or persons lawfully assisting him, her, or them from arresting such a fugitive from service or labor, either with or without process as aforesaid; or shall rescue, or attempt to rescue, such fugitive from service or labor from the custody of such claimant, his or her agent or attorney, or other person or persons lawfully assisting as aforesaid, when so arrested, pursuant to the authority herein given and declared; or shall aid, abet, or assist such person so owing service and labor as aforesaid, directly or indirectly, to escape from such claimant, his agent or attorney, or other person or persons legally authorized as aforesaid; or shall harbor or conceal such fugitive, so as to prevent the discovery and arrest of such person, after notice or knowledge of the fact that such person was a fugitive from service or labor as aforesaid, shall, for either of said offences, be subject to a fine not exceeding $1,000, and imprisonment not exceeding six months, by indictment and conviction before the district court of the United States for the district in which such offence may have been committed, or before the proper court of criminal juris-

diction, if committed within any one of the organized Territories of the United States; and shall moreover forfeit and pay, by way of civil damages to the party injured by such illegal conduct, the sum of $1,000 for each fugitive so lost as aforesaid, to be recovered by action of debt, in any of the district or territorial courts aforesaid, within whose jurisdiction the said offence may have been committed.

Sec. 8. And be it further enacted, that the marshals, their deputies, and the clerks of the said district and territorial courts, shall be paid for their services the like fees as may be allowed to them for similar services in other cases; and where such services are rendered exclusively in the arrest, custody, and delivery of the fugitive to the claimant, his or her agent or attorney, or where such supposed fugitive may be discharged out of custody for the want of sufficient proof as aforesaid, then such fees are to be paid in the whole by such claimant, his agent or attorney; and in all cases where the proceedings are before a commissioner, he shall be entitled to a fee of $10 in full for his services in each case, upon the delivery of the said certificate to the claimant, his or her agent or attorney; or a fee of $5 in cases where the proof shall not, in the opinion of such commissioner, warrant such certificate and delivery, inclusive of all services incident to such arrest and examination, to be paid in either case by the claimant, his or her agent or attorney. The person or persons authorized to execute the process to be issued by such commissioners, for the arrest and detention of fugitives from service or labor as aforesaid, shall also be entitled to a fee of $5 each for each person he or they may arrest and take before any such commissioner as aforesaid, at the instance and request of such claimant; with such other fees as may be deemed reasonable by such commissioner for such other additional services as may be necessarily performed by him or them; such as attending at the examination, keeping the fugitive in custody, and providing him with food and lodging during his detention, and until the final determination of such commissioner; and in general for performing such other duties as may be required by such claimant, his or her attorney or agent, or commissioner in the premises, such fees to be made up in conformity with the fees usually charged by the officers of the courts of justice within the proper district or county, as near as may be practicable, and paid by such claimants, their agents or attorneys, whether such supposed fugitives from service or labor be ordered to be delivered to such claimants by the final determination of such commissioner or not.

Sec. 9. And be it further enacted, that upon affidavit made by the claimant of such fugitive, his agent or attorney, after such certificate has been issued, that he has reason to apprehend that such fugitive will be rescued by force from his or their possession before he can be taken beyond the limits of the State in which the arrest is made, it shall be the duty of the officer making the arrest to retain such fugitive in his custody, and to remove him to the State whence he fled, and there to deliver him to said claimant, his agent or attorney. And to this end, the officer aforesaid is hereby authorized and required to employ so many persons as he may deem necessary to overcome such force, and to retain them in his service so long as circumstances may require. The said officer and his assistants, while so employed, to receive the same compensation, and to be allowed the same expenses, as are now allowed by law for transportation of criminals, to be certified by the judge of the district within which the arrest is made, and paid out of the treasury of the United States.

Sec. 10. And be it further enacted, that when any person held to service or labor, in any State or Territory, or in the District of Columbia, shall escape therefrom, the party to whom such service or labor shall be due, his, her, or their agent or attorney, may apply to any court of record therein, or judge thereof in vacation, and make satisfactory proof to such court, or judge in vacation, of the escape aforesaid, and that the person escaping owed service or labor to such party. Whereupon, the court shall cause a record to be made of the matters so proved, and also a general description of the person so escaping, with such convenient certainty as may be; and a transcript of such record, authenticated by the attestation of the

clerk and of the seal of the said court, being procured in any other State, Territory, or district, in which the person so escaping may be found, and being exhibited to any judge, commissioner, or other officer authorized by the law of the United States to cause persons escaping from service or labor to be delivered up, shall be held and taken to be full and conclusive evidence of the fact of escape, and that the service or labor of the person escaping is due to the party in such record mentioned. And upon the production of the said party of other and further evidence, if necessary, either oral or by affidavit, in addition to what is contained in the said record, of the identity of the person escaping, he or she shall be delivered up to the claimant. And the said court, commissioner, judge, or other person authorized by this act to grant certificates to claimants of fugitives, shall, upon the production of the record and other evidences aforesaid, grant to such claimant a certificate of his right to take any such person identified and proved to be owing service or labor as aforesaid, which certificate shall authorize such claimant to seize or arrest and transport such person to the State or Territory from which he escaped: provided, that nothing herein contained shall be construed as requiring the production of a transcript of such record as evidence as aforesaid. But in its absence, the claim shall be heard and determined upon other satisfactory proofs, competent in law.

Chronology of Slavery in the United States.—Before the War of Independence all the States contained slaves. In 1783 the statement in the Massachusetts Bill of Rights, "All men are born free and equal," was declared in the Supreme Court at Boston to bar slaveholding in that State. Slavery was begun within the domain of the United States in 1619, when 20 negroes were sold by a Dutch trading-vessel to settlers of Virginia. It was recognized by law in Virginia in 1620; in Massachusetts, 1641; in Connecticut and Rhode Island, about 1650; in New York, 1656; in Maryland, 1663; in New Jersey, 1665; in the Carolinas from the time of their settlement; and in Georgia, 1749. There were also a few slaves in Pennsylvania as early as 1688.

Severe laws against slaves in South Carolina 1712
Decisions in Maryland and elsewhere that conversion and baptism do not confer freedom 1715
Importation of slaves into Virginia (1,000 annually) 1724
Georgia prohibits slavery 1735
Strong public opinion in Georgia in favor of slavery, supported by Whitefield and Habersham 1737-49
Slavery legalized in Georgia 1749
Laws of great severity against slaves enacted in South Carolina 1750
Authority for dismemberment of slaves general throughout the South ..... "
Little effort made to convert slaves anywhere before or after ..... "
Slave code quite severe in Massachusetts ..... "
Slave population in Connecticut greater than in Massachusetts, and in Rhode Island than in either ..... "
Very few slaves in Pennsylvania before or after ..... "
Controversy in Massachusetts on slavery 1766-73
Virginia prohibits the introduction of slaves 1778
Virginia repeals the old colonial statute forbidding the emancipation of slaves except for meritorious service 1782

SLAVE POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1790

New Hampshire	158
Vermont	17
Rhode Island	952
Connecticut	2,759
Massachusetts	none
New York	21,324
New Jersey	11,423
Pennsylvania	3,737
Delaware	8,887
Maryland	103,036
Virginia	293,427
North Carolina	100,572
South Carolina	107,094
Georgia	29,264
Kentucky	11,830
Tennessee	3,417
Total	697,897

In 1810, 1,191,364; in 1820, 2,009,031; in 1850, 3,204,313; in 1860, 4,002,996. In 1870, 4,889,193 free colored persons; in 1880, 6,577,151; in 1890, 7,638,360.

Congress passes unanimously the celebrated ordinance "for the government of the territory to the n. w. of the Ohio," which contained an "*unalterable*" article, forbidding slavery or involuntary servitude in the said territory ..... July 13, 1787
Debate in Congress on the power of that body over slavery 1790
Slavery opposed by the Presbyterian and Methodist churches ..... "
Right of petition to Congress on the subject of slavery debated 1792
Slave laws introduced into Kentucky .. "
Quakers present a memorial to Congress praying for the abolition of slavery 1794
Slavery legalized in Tennessee 1796
Georgia forbids the emancipation of slaves 1798
Free colored men petition Congress for protection against being enslaved ... 1800
Louisiana purchased, thus increasing the slave territory 1803

Memorial to Congress of the people of Indiana to suspend the ordinance prohibiting slavery north of the Ohio River 1804

["Had this decision rested with them, both Indiana and Illinois would have come into the Union as slave States."—*Hildreth,* vol. v., p. 497.]

Great debate in Congress on the abolition of the slave-trade..... 1806

[Enormous increase in the growth of cotton in the Southern States, owing to the invention of the cotton-gin in 1792, which greatly increases the demand for slave labor.]

Missouri Compromise.....1817-21
Anti-slavery societies organize in New York City and Philadelphia..... 1833
Prudence Crandall's school for colored children (girls) broken up..... "
Incendiary literature (regarding slavery) noticed in Jackson's message..... 1835
Murder of Rev. Elijah P. Lovejoy 1836
Amistad Case, The 1839
Creole Case, The..... 1841
Samuel Hoar in Charleston, S. C....1844-45
Schooner *Pearl* 1848
Fugitive Slave law and other compromise measures pass..... 1850
Slave-trade suppressed in the District of Columbia..... "
Negro Sims seized at Boston under the Fugitive Slave Law..... 1851
Negro Shadrach seized at Boston under the Fugitive Slave Law..... "
Uncle Tom's Cabin published..... 1852
Repeal of the Missouri Compromise by Kansas and Nebraska bill..... 1854
Republican party formed ..... "
Seizure of the negro Burns at Boston "
Kansas war .....et seq. 1854
Dred Scott decision 1857
Seizure of the negro Littlejohn at Oberlin, Ohio, under the Fugitive Slave Law 1859
John Brown's insurrection..... "
Abraham Lincoln, Republican, elected President.....Nov. 4, 1860
Secession of South Carolina.....Dec., "
Slavery abolished in the District of Columbia .....April 16, 1862
President Lincoln proclaims the abolition of slavery in all States in rebellion, Jan. 1, 1863.....Sept. 22, "
Slavery practically abolished by the submission of the Southern armies, April, 1865
Total abolition of slavery in the United States officially announced ..Dec. 18, "

For additional details of slavery and the slave-trade, see ABOLITION and cognate titles.

Slave Representation. See COMPROMISES.

Slemmer, ADAM J., military officer; born in Montgomery county, Pa., in 1828; graduated at West Point in 1850; was promoted for gallant conduct in the Seminole War; was for a while assistant professor of ethics and mathematics at West Point, and was in command of a small garrison at Fort McRae, near Pensacola, when the Civil War broke out. He took his men and supplies to stronger Fort Pickens, and held it against the Confederates until relieved by Colonel Brown (see PICKENS, FORT). He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in 1862; was severely wounded in the battle of Stone River, and was disabled from further active service. In March, 1865, he was brevetted brigadier-general United States army, and was afterwards commandant at Fort Laramie, Kan., where he died, Oct. 7, 1868.

Slidell, JOHN, diplomatist; born in New York City in 1793; graduated at Columbia College in 1810, and settled, as a lawyer, in New Orleans, where, in 1829–30, he was United States district attorney. He served in the State legislature, and from 1843 to 1845 was in Congress. In the latter year he was appointed United States minister to Mexico, and in 1853 was elected to the United States Senate, where he remained, by re-election, until

JOHN SLIDELL.

February, 1861. He was a very conspicuous Confederate, and withdrew from the United States Senate to engage in furthering the cause. He was sent as a commissioner of the Confederacy to France, in the fall of 1861, when he was captured by a cruiser of the United States under command of CAPT. CHARLES WILKES (*q. v.*). After his release from Fort Warren, he sailed for England, Jan. 1, 1862, where he resided until his death, July 29, 1871.

Slocum, HENRY WARNER, military officer; born in Delphi, N. Y., Sept. 24, 1827; graduated at West Point in 1852; resigned in 1856, and settled in Syracuse as a lawyer. Early in the Civil

War he was commissioned colonel of 27th New York Volunteers; joined McDowell's troops, and took part in the battle of Bull Run, where he was shot through the thigh. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861, and commanded a brigade in Franklin's division. He served with distinction in the campaign on the Peninsula, in 1862, and on July 4, 1862, he was promoted major-general. In the battle of Groveton (or second battle of Bull Run), at South Mountain, and Antietam, he was signally active, and in October, 1862, was assigned to the command of the 12th Corps, which he led at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Gettysburg. At the latter he commanded the right wing of Meade's army. From September, 1863, to April, 1864, he guarded the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad, and in the Atlanta campaign commanded the 20th Corps. In the march to the sea he commanded one of the grand divisions of Sherman's army; also through the Carolinas, until the surrender of Johnston. He resigned Sept. 28, 1865; was defeated as Democratic candidate for secretary of state of New York in 1865; elected to Congress in 1868–70, and 1884. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., April 14, 1894.

HENRY WARNER SLOCUM.

Sloughter, HENRY. See LEISLER, JACOB.

Small, JOHN, military officer; born in Strathardle, Scotland, in 1726; joined the British army; participated in the attack on Fort Ticonderoga in 1758; promoted captain in 1762. He took part in the battle of Bunker Hill in 1775; served under Sir Henry Clinton at New York in 1779; promoted lieutenant-colonel in 1780; major-general in 1794. He died on the island of Guernsey, March, 17, 1796.

Small-arms. The year 1898 settled most conclusively for the United States the question of the superiority of a small calibre small-arm over the larger sizes formerly in use.

After a series of exhaustive experiments lasting years, a board composed of officers of the line and ordnance experts, all recognized authorities on the subject, decided that the Krag-Jörgenson rifle, calibre .30 inch, was the best gun, and in all respects superior to any other, and should be placed in the hands of all United States troops. This report was approved by the general commanding the army and the Secretary of War, both of whom were well qualified to judge. Notwithstanding this, small appropriations only were made, and the regular army at the outbreak of the war with Spain had barely sufficient arms for its own use. The result was that the old weapons used before the Krag-Jörgenson—the Springfield, calibre .45 inch—was placed in the hands of most of the volunteer troops.

The result was exactly as line officers predicted, the comparative uselessness of the Springfield. The Krag, by its smokeless powder cartridges, as well as its re-

markable accuracy, range, and power, seemingly was as much to be praised for the winning of El Caney, San Juan, and Santiago as the bravery and endurance and skill of the men. Armed with Springfields only, it is doubtful whether our forces would ever have got beyond the shores of Cuba. Another great advantage of the small calibre is the effect of the bullet. At short ranges it is terrible. It is what the surgeons say is smashing, tearing the bones, sinews, and flesh. It has, therefore, the stopping powers to be desired. But at the ordinary fighting ranges, where most of the killing and wounding occur, as well as at long ranges, the small bullet is a merciful punisher. The hole made by it is small, clean-cut, and scarcely felt. In the Cuban campaign there were but eleven amputations, and every case recovered.

In official tests made recently comparing the Mauser, calibre .30, and the Krag-Jörgenson, calibre .30, rifles, it was shown that from either gun twenty shots a minute with a good degree of accuracy could be fired, while without aiming twenty shots could be fired in forty seconds. When used as single loaders it was shown that forty shots could be fired with great accuracy in two minutes, while the continuity of magazine fire with either did not exceed that of the same when employed as single loaders.

Some of the conclusions reached by medical officers as to the effects of new small-calibre guns and powerful powders are: 1. That while weapons like the Mauser leave nothing to be desired on the score of humanity, they are failures in that they do not serve the special service for which they were intended. Soldiers fire with the intention of putting as many as possible of the enemy *hors de combat*, but when the bullets bore neat little holes through flesh and bone, and, except when vital organs are traversed, cause no shock to the system, then the soldier's task is more difficult. In other words, guns of the Mauser type prolong conflicts. 2. The missiles from new rifles do greater harm or are more effective at long range than at short, but, unlike the old bullets, clothing is not so apt to be carried into the flesh, and thus poison it. 3. Abdominal wounds are now almost always fatal.

Small-pox. In 1721 small-pox made great havoc in Boston and its vicinity. There were nearly 6,000 cases in New England, and about 1,000 deaths. Inoculation for the disease, so as to mitigate its malignity, had just been introduced into England by Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, whose son had been so treated in Constantinople. Her daughter was the first person inoculated in England. An account of the innovation had been previously published in the transactions of the Royal Society. Dr. Cotton Mather, having read the account, recommended the physicians of Boston to try the operation. None dared attempt it excepting Dr. Zabdiel Boylston, who, to show his confidence of success, began with his own family, and continued the practice against violent opposition. Pious persons denounced it as an interference with the prerogatives of Jehovah—an attempt to thwart God, who sent the small-pox as a punishment for sins, and whose vengeance would thus be provoked more. Other physicians denounced the practice, and many sober people declared that if any of Dr. Boylston's inoculated patients should die he ought to be tried for murder. An exasperated mob paraded the streets with halters in their hands, threatening to hang the inoculators, and Dr. Boylston's family was hardly safe in his own house. A lighted grenade was thrown into the chamber of an inoculated patient in the house of Dr. Cotton Mather. The selectmen of Boston took strong ground against inoculation; so, also, did the popular branch of the legislature. The violent opposition of the physicians, led by a Scotchman named Douglas, was the chief cause of the excitement. When news arrived of the success attending the operation on Lady Mary's daughter (performed the same month that Dr. Boylston introduced it in Boston) opposition was soon silenced, and inoculation was extensively practised in the colonies until Jenner's greater discovery of the merits of vaccination for the kine-pox.

Smalley, Eugene Virgil, journalist; born in Randolph, O., July 18, 1841; educated at Central College; member of the 7th Ohio Infantry during the Civil War; served as correspondent and on the staff of the New York *Tribune* in 1871–82;

later became editor of the *Northwest Magazine* in St. Paul, Minn. He was the author of *A History of the Republican Party; Political History of Minnesota;* and *History of the Northern Pacific Railroad.* He died in St. Paul, Minn., Dec. 29, 1899.

Smalley, GEORGE WASHBURN, journalist; born in Franklin, Mass., June 2, 1833; graduated at Yale College in 1853; studied law and practised in Boston till the Civil War broke out, when he became war correspondent for the New York *Tribune.* He joined its editorial staff in 1862; removed to London; was foreign correspondent for the *Tribune* in 1867–95; and in the latter year became correspondent for the London *Times* in the United States.

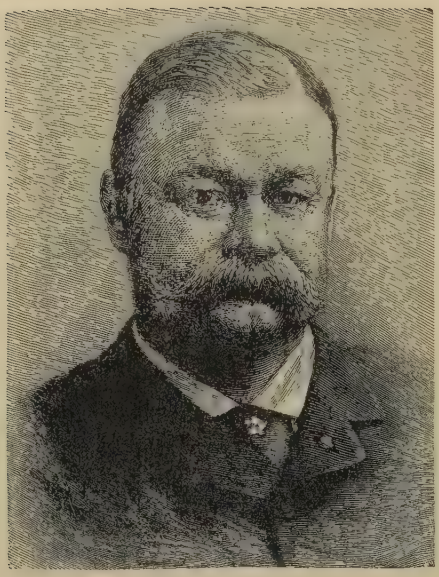
Smallwood, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Kent county, Md., in 1732; became a colonel in the Maryland line in 1776, and his battalion, which joined Washington, at New York, before the battle of Long Island, was composed of men belonging to the best families of his native State. These suffered in that battle, at

WILLIAM SMALLWOOD

which Smallwood was not present. He was in the action at White Plains, about two months later; and when, late in the summer of 1777, the British, under the Howes, appeared in Chesapeake Bay, he was sent to gather the militia on the western shore of Maryland. With about 1,000 of these he joined Washington after the battle of Brandywine. He was in the battle of Germantown with his militia. While with Gates, in the South, he was promoted major-general (Sept. 15, 1780), and soon afterwards he returned to the North. Smallwood refused to serve under Baron de Steuben, who was his senior officer, and demanded that his own commission should be dated two years before his appointment. He was a member of Congress in 1785, and governor of Maryland in 1785–88. He died in Prince George county, Md., Feb. 14, 1792.

Smibert, or **Smybert,** JOHN, portrait-painter; born in Edinburgh, Scotland, about 1684; studied in Italy and painted in London, and in 1728 accompanied Dean Berkeley to America. He painted the portraits of many New England worthies. The only portrait of Jonathan Edwards ever made was painted by Smibert, who died in Boston in 1751. Smibert introduced portrait-painting into America. He was not an artist of the first rank, for the arts were then at a low ebb in England; but the best portraits that we have of the eminent magistrates and divines in New England and New York, who lived between 1725 and 1751, are from his pencil. While with Berkeley at Newport he painted a group of portraits, including the dean and a part of his family, in which the figure of the artist appears. The picture belongs to Yale College.

Smith, ANDREW JACKSON, military officer; born in Bucks county, Pa., April 28, 1815; graduated at West Point in 1838; entered the dragoons; served in the war against Mexico and against the Indians in Oregon (1855–60); and when the Civil War broke out he was promoted major of cavalry. He was chief of cavalry in the Department of Missouri in the spring of 1862, and in the Department of the Mississippi from March to July. He was one of the most active and useful officers in the Southwest, commanding divisions in Missouri and Arkansas, in the Vicksburg and Red River campaigns, and afterwards (1864) in driving Price out of Missouri, and assisting Thomas against Hood at Nashville. He was in the Mobile campaign, early in 1865. For his services during the war he was brevetted major-general and commissioned colonel of the 7th United



ANDREW JACKSON SMITH.

States Cavalry. He resigned in May, 1869, and died in St. Louis, Mo., in 1897.

Smith, BUCKINGHAM, historian; born on Cumberland Island, Ga., Oct. 31, 1810; graduated at Cambridge Law School in 1836; elected to the Florida legislature; was secretary of the United States legation at Mexico in 1850–52, and at Madrid in 1855–58; and later settled in Florida, where he became a judge and a member of the State Senate. He made many important researches in Indian philology, Mexican history and antiquities, and early Spanish expeditions in North America. He aided Bancroft, Parkman, and Sparks in their researches, and published *An Inquiry into the Authenticity of Documents concerning a Discovery of North America claimed to have been made by Verrazano.* He died in New York City, Jan. 5, 1871.

Smith, CALEB BLOOD, jurist; born in Boston, Mass., April 16, 1808; was educated at Cincinnati and Miami colleges; admitted to the bar in 1828, and began practice in Connersville, Ind. He served in the State legislature for several terms; was a Whig representative in Congress in 1843–49, and during this period was also one of the Mexican Claims Commissioners. At the National Republican Convention in Chicago in 1860 he actively favored the nomination of Abraham Lincoln for the Presidency, and in 1861 was appointed by him Secretary of the Interior. He resigned this office in December, 1862, on being appointed United States Circuit Judge for Indiana. He died in Indianapolis, Ind., Jan. 7, 1864.

Smith, CHARLES EMORY, journalist; born in Mansfield, Conn., Feb. 18, 1842; was graduated at Union College in 1861; was successively editor of the Albany *Press*, the Albany *Journal*, and the Philadelphia *Press;* minister to Russia in 1890–92; postmaster-general in 1898–1902. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 19, 1908.

Smith, CHARLES FERGUSON, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., April 24, 1807; graduated at West Point in 1825, and was assistant instructor of tactics there from 1829 to 1831. He was adjutant of the post from September, 1831, to April, 1838, and then again instructor till 1842. He served in the war against Mexico, received the brevet of colonel, and was made full colonel in September, 1861. In August, 1861, he was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers, and in March, 1862, major-general, after the capture of Fort Donelson. He was afterwards ordered to Savannah, Tenn., where he died, April 25, 1862.

Smith, CHARLES HENRY, military officer; born in Hollis, Me., Nov. 1, 1827; was made captain of the 1st Maine Cavalry soon after the beginning of the Civil War; rose to colonel in the spring of 1863, and was active as a cavalry officer in the campaigns in Virginia and at Gettysburg that year. He was with Sheridan in his operations in May and June, 1864, and was one of the most efficient cavalry officers of the Army of the Potomac in the campaign against Richmond. For "gallant and meritorious services during the war" he was brevetted major-general, United States army, in 1867; commissioned colonel of the 28th United States Infantry in 1866; and was retired in 1891. He died in Washington, D. C., July 17, 1902.

Smith, EDMUND KIRBY, military officer; born in St. Augustine, Fla., May 16, 1824; graduated at West Point in 1845; entered the field under General Taylor, at the beginning of the war with

Mexico, and after the war was assistant professor of mathematics at West Point (1849–52). He resigned his commission in April, 1861; joined the Confederates, and became a brigadier-general in the army under Gen. Joseph E. Johnston. Promoted to major-general, he was placed in command of the Department of East Tennessee early in 1862; was made lieutenant-general (October, 1862), and was in the battle at Stone River. Early in 1863 he was put in command of the Trans-Mississippi Army, which he surrendered to Gen. Edward R. S. Canby (*q. v.*), May 26, 1865, at Baton Rouge. In 1864 he defeated General Banks in the Red River campaign. He was chancellor of the University of Nashville in 1870–75, and then became professor of mathematics in the University of the South. He died in Sewanee, Tenn., March 28, 1893.

Smith, Francis Hopkinson, engineer, author, painter, lecturer; born in Baltimore, Md., Oct. 23, 1838; built the seawalls around Governor's Island and at Tompkinsville, N. Y., the Race Rock lighthouse off New London, Conn., and the foundation for the Bartholdi Statue of Liberty; became widely known by his landscape work in water-colors, his illustrations, and his varied writings. He died in New York, April 7, 1915.

Smith, George Washington, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 4, 1800; was admitted to the bar in 1823, but did not practise; was the founder of the Pennsylvania Historical Society. His publications include *Facts and Arguments in Favor of Adopting Railroads in Preference to Canals; Defence of the Pennsylvania System in Favor of Solitary Confinement of Prisoners,* etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., April 22, 1876.

Smith, Gerrit, philanthropist; born in Utica, N. Y., March 6, 1797; studied law; joined and liberally contributed to the American Colonization Society in 1825, but withdrew from it in 1835, then becoming a member of the Anti-Slavery Society. He gave pecuniary aid to John Brown, in whose affair at Harper's Ferry he, however, it is thought, had no part. He was nominated for governor of New York in 1840 and 1858; was a member of Congress in 1853–54; with Horace Greeley signed the bail bond of Jefferson Davis in 1867. In June, 1848, the radical section of the abolitionists known as the "Liberty League," nominated Gerrit Smith, of New York, for President, and Charles E. Foot, of Ohio, for Vice-President, but those nominations seem to have attracted no votes. The "Industrial Congress," composed of representatives of labor organizations, which met at Philadelphia, June 13, 1848, and nominated Gerrit Smith and William S. Waitt, of Illinois, was equally ineffective. He was a supporter of a number of reforms. He built a non-sectarian church at Peterboro, in which he occasionally preached.

Mr. Smith had given farms to a considerable number of colored people near North Elba, Essex county, New York. In this region, as Indian corn would not ripen and stock had to be fed six months in the year, it was wholly unfitted by climate and production to the negro race. John Brown, the abolitionist, settled his family at North Elba with the intent to act as an adviser and helper to the negroes, but the project of a negro settlement was unsuccessful.

It was at Gerrit Smith's house, Peterboro, N. Y., that Brown had asked to meet him, Theodore Parker, Geo. L. Stearns, T. W. Higginson, and F. B. Sanborn, all of Boston, and all his intimate supporters. Only Sanborn came, but he was empowered to represent the others.

Mr. Sanborn, in his *Life of John Brown,* says: "After dinner I went with Mr. Smith, John Brown, and my old classmate, Mr. Smith's secretary, to a room in the third story. Here, in the long winter evening which followed, the whole outline of Brown's campaign in Virginia was laid before our little council. . . . The middle of May was named as the time for the attack. To begin this hazardous enterprise, Brown asked for but $800."

Smith, Giles Alexander, military officer; born in Jefferson county, N. Y., Sept. 29, 1829; engaged in the dry goods business in Cincinnati, O., and Bloomington, Ill.; entered the Civil War as captain in the 8th Missouri Volunteers in 1861; becoming lieutenant-colonel and colonel in 1862; brevetted brigadier-general United States Volunteers in 1863; and was later transferred to the 25th Army Corps, and became major-general of volunteers in

1865; resigned in 1866 and settled in Bloomington, Ill.; was second assistant postmaster-general in 1869–72; and founded the Society of the Army of Tennessee. He died in Bloomington, Ill., Nov. 8, 1876.

Smith, GOLDWIN, publicist; born in Reading, England, Aug. 23, 1823; graduated at Oxford University in 1845; was professor of modern history at Oxford in 1858–66. During the Civil War in the United States he was a stanch champion of the national government. He visited the United States in 1864, and later was for a time honorary professor of English and Constitutional history at Cornell University. In 1871 he settled in Toronto, Canada. He was widely known as an exponent of the idea that Canada will finally unite her political life with that of the United States. His publications include *Does the Bible Sanction American Slavery? On the Morality of the Emancipation Proclamation; A Letter to a Whig Member of the Southern Independence Association; England and America; The Civil War in America; The Relations between England and America; The Political Destiny of Canada; William Lloyd Garrison; History of the United States,* etc. He died in Toronto, Canada, June 7, 1910. When his will was opened it was found that he had bequeathed the greater part of his estate, estimated at $1,000,000 in value, to Cornell University.

Smith, GREEN CLAY, military officer; born in Richmond, Ky., July 2, 1830; was in the volunteer service during the Mexican War; graduated at Transylvania University in 1850; studied law and practised in Covington, Ky.; was a member of the State legislature in 1861; entered the Civil War as colonel of the 4th Kentucky Cavalry; promoted brigadier-general of volunteers in 1862; resigned in 1863; served in Congress in 1863–66; was a delegate to the Baltimore Convention in 1864; governor of Montana in 1866–68; ordained a minister in the Baptist Church in 1869, and then settled in Franklin, Ky.; was the candidate for the Presidency of the National Prohibition party in 1876; and became pastor of the Metropolitan Baptist Church, Washington, D. C., in 1890. He died in Washington, D. C., June 29, 1895.

Smith, GUSTAVUS WOODSON, military officer; born in Scott county, Ky., Jan. 1, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1842; served in the war against Mexico; and resigned, for the consideration of $10,000 from the Cuban fund, to join a projected expedition against Cuba, under General Quitman, in 1854. He afterwards settled in New York City, and was street commissioner there, when he joined the Confederates under Gen. Mansfield Lovell, at New Orleans. He was commissioned major-general, and after Gen. Joseph E. Johnston was wounded at Fair Oaks he took command of his army temporarily. In 1864 he commanded at Augusta, Ga., and was captured at Marion (April 20, 1865) by General Wilson. After the war he was in business in New York City, where he died, June 23, 1896.

Smith, HERBERT KNOX, lawyer; born in Chester, Mass., Nov. 17, 1869; was educated at Yale; practised law in Hartford, Conn., 1895–1903; member Connecticut house of representatives, 1903–05; of United States commission to investigate the *Slocum* disaster, 1904; deputy commissioner of corporations, Department of Commerce and Labor, 1903–07; then became commissioner.

Smith, HOKE, lawyer; born in Newton, N. C., Sept. 2, 1855; admitted to the bar in Atlanta, Ga., 1873; practised there till 1909; Secretary of the Interior, 1893–96; governor of Georgia, 1907–09 and part of 1911; elected United States Senator to fill vacancy of 1911–15 and term of 1915–21.

Smith, JAMES, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Ireland, about 1720; educated at the College of Philadelphia; became a lawyer and surveyor; and in 1774 raised the first volunteer company in Pennsylvania to resist British oppression. He was also an active patriot in civil affairs, and was largely instrumental in kindling the flame of resistance in his province. He was a member of the Pennsylvania Convention (1775) and the convention (June, 1776) that framed a new government for the province. He seconded the resolution of Dr. Rush, in the Provincial Convention, in favor of declaring independence. This was unanimously adopted, signed by the members, and presented to Congress a few days before that body adopted the famous Declaration. On June 20, 1776, he was

elected a delegate in Congress, and he remained so until November, 1778. In 1780 he was a member of the new Pennsylvania Assembly. He died in York, Pa., July 11, 1806.

Smith, JEDEDIAH, fur-trader and explorer; succeeded Ashley as the leader in Rocky Mountain trade and exploration. In 1826 he left the Salt Lake rendezvous with a party of trappers to learn the secrets of the lands between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. Proceeding to the southwest along the Virgin River, Smith descended it to the Colorado, and crossed the desert to San Diego, California. Here, by the intercession of a Yankee captain then in that port, he obtained supplies from the Spaniards, and turned to the northwest, travelling parallel to the coast for some three hundred miles to wintering grounds on the headwaters of the San Joaquin and the Merced. Leaving most of his party behind, he crossed the mountains, by a route south of the Humboldt, and returned to Great Salt Lake.

Almost immediately he set out again for California by the previous route, and in 1827 reached the San José mission. Here he was arrested by the Spanish authorities and sent under guard to Monterey, where another Yankee skipper secured his release. Wintering once more in California, this time on the American Fork, he reached the coast in the spring of 1828, and followed the Umpquah River towards the Oregon country. While he was absent, his camp was attacked by the Indians and fifteen of his men killed. Absolutely alone, Smith worked his way through the forest to Fort Vancouver, where he enjoyed the hospitality of Dr. McLoughlin through the winter. In the following spring he ascended the Columbia to the Hudson Bay posts among the Flatheads, and made his way in the summer of 1829 to the rendezvous of his company at the Tetons. In three years this daring trader, braving the horrors of the desert and passing unscathed from Indian attacks which carried off most of his companions, opened to knowledge much of the vast country between Great Salt Lake and the Pacific. In 1831, while on the Santa Fé trail, Smith and his companions lost their way. Perishing with thirst, he finally reached the Cimaron, where he was shot by an Indian.

Smith, JOHN, settler; born in Willoughby, Lincolnshire, England, in January, 1579. From early youth he was a soldier, and for four years he was in wars in the Netherlands. Returning home, he soon went abroad again to fight the Turks, distinguishing himself in Hungary and Transylvania, for which service Sigismond Bathori ennobled him and gave him a pension. Serving under an Austrian general in besieging a Turkish fortress, he performed a wonderful exploit. One of the Turkish generals sent a message to the Austrian camp, saying, "I challenge any captain of the besieging army to combat." Smith was chosen by lot to accept it. They fought in the presence of a multitude on the ramparts. Smith cut off his antagonist's head. A second and a third appeared and suffered the same fate. The combat ended, and when Smith was ennobled he had upon his coat of arms, in two quarterings of his shield, three Turks' heads, with a chevron between the two upper ones and the lower one.

Taken a prisoner by the Turks, he was sent, a slave, to Constantinople, where he won the affection of his young mistress. He was sent by her to her brother in the Crimea, with a letter avowing her attachment. The indignant Turk cruelly maltreated Smith, when the latter one day slew his

SMITH'S COAT OF ARMS.

taskmaster, put on the Ottoman's clothes, mounted a horse, and escaped to a Russian port on the Don. The account he gave of his personal exploits was most remarkable.

On his return to England, Bartholomew Gosnold persuaded Smith to engage in founding a colony in Virginia, and at the age of twenty-seven years, already great-

CAPT. JOHN SMITH (From an old print.)

ly renowned, he sailed for America, Dec. 19, 1606, with Capt. Christopher Newport, who commanded three vessels that bore 105 emigrants. He was accompanied by Gosnold, Edward Maria Wingfield (one of the London Company), George Percy, Rev. Robert Hunt, and other men of property. The voyage was by the southern route, and was long and tedious. Captain Smith's conduct on shipboard was boastful and arrogant, and quarrels with him were frequent. At the Canaries, Wingfield charged him with conspiring to usurp the government in Virginia, and make himself king. There was no head to the company at sea, for the silly King, with his love for concealment, had placed the names of the councillors in a sealed box, which was not to be opened until they should land in Virginia. Some of the passengers, believing Wingfield's charge to be true, confined Smith and kept him a prisoner until the voyage was ended. A part of the company landed on Cape Henry, at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, had a skirmish with the Indians, and that night

SMITH'S ESCAPE FROM SLAVERY.

the box was opened, when it was discovered that Smith was one of the council. But he was rejected.

After resting at Point Comfort, at the mouth of the James River, they went up that stream, and landed where they built Jamestown, and chose that for the seat of the new empire. Captain Smith, with Newport and twenty men, explored the James River as far as the falls, the site of Richmond, and made the acquaintance of Powhatan, emperor of thirty Indian tribes. They returned and found the government organized by the choice of Wingfield as president, who, to get rid of Smith, proposed that he should return to England with Newport and avoid the disgrace of a trial. The indignant soldier demanded an instant trial. His innocence was proven, Wingfield withdrew the charges, and Smith took his seat in the council, when that body demanded that the president should pay Smith £200 for false imprisonment. All of Wingfield's property was seized to pay it, when Smith generously placed it in the public store for the use of the colony.

Sickness prostrated the colony before the close of summer. At one time there were scarcely ten men who could stand up. It was discovered that Wingfield was living on the choicest stores, and was preparing to desert the colony in a pinnace Newport had left when he returned with

the ships to England for more emigrants and supplies. He was deposed, and one weaker and as wicked (Ratcliffe) was put in his place. The settlers now took the management of affairs and put them in Smith's hands, who soon brought order out of confusion, made the Indians bring stores of corn, and had the colony well supplied with food for the ensuing winter. But one-half of the emigrants had perished by the end of summer. Among the victims was Gosnold. The company had instructed the leaders of the colony to explore every considerable stream in search of the coveted northwest passage. Smith smiled at the ignorance of the company, but gladly undertook explorations. He went up the Chickahominy in an open boat to shallow water among the swamps of the Virginia peninsula. Leaving the boat in charge of part of his company, he with two others and two Indian guides penetrated the forest, when Smith was seized by savages under Opechancanough, king of Pamunkey, an elder brother of Powhatan, and conducted to the presence of the emperor at Weroworomoco, on the borders of the York River.

At a great council presided over by Powhatan, he was doomed to die. Matoa, or Pocahontas, a daughter of Powhatan, begged her father to spare the prisoner's life, but in vain. His head was laid upon two huge stones, and two stalwart warriors had raised heavy clubs to crush it, when Pocahontas sprang from her seat by her father's side, clasped the prisoner's head with her arms, and laid her own head on his (see POCAHONTAS). The emperor yielded, and Smith was released and sent to Jamestown with an escort, where he found only forty persons, and the stronger ones on the point of abandoning the settlement and escaping in the pinnace. He also found that during his absence the little church that had been built had been

SMITH'S FIRST FIGHT WITH THE INDIANS.

burned, and the settlers were worshipping under a tent. Other emigrants came with Newport in 1608, but they were chiefly idle and dissolute men, sent thither "to escape ill destinies at home." Some shining yellow deposits from a stream issuing from a bank of sand were discovered, and, with the belief that the stream flowed from a mine of gold, they sought the precious metal with avidity instead of tilling the ground for food. Smith implored them in vain to plant and sow; and in the early summer, disgusted with their fatal folly, he left them, and with his friend Dr. Russell and a few of the more sensible men he explored the Potomac and Rappahannock rivers, Chesapeake Bay and its estuaries and tributaries, and the Patapsco to the site of Baltimore. He went up the Susquehanna, probably a few miles above its mouth, where he heard of the powerful Iroquois Confederacy in the present State of New York.

These explorations were made in two different voyages in the space of three months. He travelled in his boat about 3,000 miles, made friends of powerful chiefs, and arranged for future settlements around the Chesapeake. When he returned to Jamestown early in September, he found the settlers in confusion again, and three days afterwards he was chosen president of the council. Soon afterwards Newport came again with sup-

SMITH'S MEETING WITH POWHATAN.

SMITH SUBDUING POWHATAN.

plies and seventy emigrants, no better than the former ones. Two women came with them—the wife of one of the emigrants and her maid, Anne Burrows, who soon afterwards married John Laydon. These were the first women of European blood seen on the banks of the James. With these new-comers the London Company sent word that unless the colonists should send back the ships, commodities enough to pay the cost of the voyage ($10,000), and other valuable products or information, they should "be left in Virginia as banished men." Smith made a spirited reply, and begged them to send over emigrants who would be producers before they could expect much in return. But the threat assisted Smith in exercising discipline and enforcing rules for labor. He demanded six hours of work each day from every able-bodied man, and said "He who will not work shall not eat." Very soon the "gentlemen" became expert with the axe and the hoe, yet the colony continued to depend upon the bounty of the Indians around them.

Meanwhile, Powhatan, though professing friendship, had conspired against the colonists. Smith, upon discovering the chief's treachery, arranged to hold a parley with him, during which he learned that he was being surrounded by a crowd of hostile Indians, and that an attempt was to be made upon his life. Quickly summoning the aid of his soldiers, he seized Pow-

hatan, and, accusing him of treachery, exacted from him a promise of submission, under penalty of immediate death. Powhatan, effectually subdued, agreed to keep peace with the white men, and to supply them with corn and provisions into the bargain.

Five hundred new settlers came in the summer of 1609, but the appointed rulers under a new charter had been wrecked in a storm on one of the Bermuda Islands. Anarchy menaced the colony, but Smith, with his usual energy, "held over" in office, and by asserting authority became, as he had on other occasions, the savior of the colony from utter ruin. He devised new expeditions and new settlements, that the idle and vicious might be employed. In the autumn of 1609 he was on the James River in a boat, when an explosion of gunpowder so wounded him that he was compelled to go to England for surgical treatment, delegating his authority to George Percy, a brother of the Duke of Northumberland. He never returned to Virginia. His labors there had been disinterested. Brave, honest, and true, he won the imperishable honor of being the first permanent planter of men of the Saxon race on the soil of the United States, and is entitled to the endearing name of Father of Virginia. Smith had made a rude map of his explorations in south Virginia; he afterwards explored the coasts of New England (1614), and made a map of the country between the Penobscot and Cape Cod. He started to found a colony there (1615), but failed. The remainder of his life was passed in retirement. He died in London, England, June 21, 1632. In 1864 a marble monument was erected to the memory of Captain Smith, on the Isles of Shoals, off the New England coast. It is placed on a pedestal of rough stone, and is situated on one of the highest eminences of Star Island. The three sides of the pillar are occupied by a lengthy eulogium on this hero of many adventures. Captain Smith published, in 1608, *A True Relation of Virginia;* in 1626, *The General History of Virginia, New England, and the Somer Isles;* and, in 1630, *The True Travels, Adventurers, and Observations of Capt. John Smith in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America.*

Smith, JOHN COTTON, legislator; born in Sharon, Conn., Feb. 12, 1765; graduated at Yale College in 1783, and was admitted to the bar in 1786. Member, clerk, and speaker of the Connecticut Assembly from 1793 to 1809, excepting a service in Congress in 1800–6, he became a leading man in the State, and in 1809 was chosen a member of the council and a judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut. Elected lieutenant-governor before the second term of the court, he was elected governor in 1813, and remained in that office five years. Governor Smith was a member of the Society of Northern Antiquaries, also of other learned societies at home. He was president of the Connecticut State Bible Society, of the American board of foreign missions, and of the American Bible Society. For several years he was an occasional contributor to various scientific and literary periodicals. He died in Sharon, Dec. 7, 1845.

Smith, JOHN EUGENE, military officer; born in Berne, Switzerland, Aug. 3, 1816; removed to Philadelphia, where he was educated; then settled in Illinois; was aide-de-camp to Governor Yates when the Civil War began; became colonel of the 45th Illinois Volunteers in July, 1861, and served well at Forts Henry and Donelson, and in the battles of Shiloh and Corinth. In November he was made brigadier-general of volunteers; in 1862 he commanded a division in the 16th Army Corps, and was in all the operations against Vicksburg in 1863. He was afterwards in the battles near Chattanooga, and in 1864 was in the Atlanta campaign under Sherman, also in his subsequent campaigns in Georgia and the Carolinas to the surrender of Johnston. He was brevetted major-general, in 1867, and retired in 1881. He died in Chicago, Ill., Jan. 29, 1897.

Smith, JONATHAN BAYARD, legislator; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Feb. 21, 1742; graduated at Princeton College in 1760; member of the Continental Congress in 1777–78; commissioned lieutenant-colonel of a battalion of "Associators" in 1777; was for many years a justice of the court of common pleas; elected auditor-general of Pennsylvania in 1794. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., June 16, 1812.

Smith, JOSEPH, Mormon; born in Sharon, Vt., Dec. 23, 1805; was of Scotch

descent; removed to Palmyra, N. Y., where, at the age of twenty-two, he began preaching Mormonism, and followed it up until his violent death at the hands of a mob in Carthage, Ill., June 27, 1844. See MORMONS.

Smith, JOSEPH, Mormon; born in Kirtland, O., Nov. 6, 1832; son of Joseph Smith, the "prophet"; remained with his mother's people in Nauvoo, Ill., when the main body of Mormons removed to Utah; studied law, but engaged in farming; and in 1860 was chosen president of the Reorganized Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, which is opposed to polygamy and holds no fellowship with the Mormon Church in Utah. See CHURCH OF JESUS CHRIST OF LATTER-DAY SAINTS; MORMONS.

Smith, JOSEPH FIELDING, Mormon; born in Far West, Mo., Nov. 13, 1838; nephew of Joseph Smith, the "prophet"; crossed the plains to Salt Lake City in 1848; was a Mormon missionary to the Sandwich Islands in 1854–57; became a high-priest and member of the high council in October, 1858; was subsequently missionary to Europe; was ordained an apostle in July, 1866; and was president of the constitutional convention which met in 1882 to draw up a constitution for the State of Utah, and to petition Congress for admission to the Union. He was second counsellor in the Mormon Church under presidents Taylor, Woodruff, and Snow, and on Oct. 17, 1901, was elected president of the Church to succeed LORENZO SNOW (*q. v*).

Smith, JOSHUA HETT, lawyer; born in New York City in 1736; became successful in his profession; was a Tory during the Revolution, and was connected with the treason of Benedict Arnold, who, with André, passed the night of Sept. 22, 1780, at the Smith house. When the conspiracy was consummated Smith, for some unexplained reason, declined to place André on board the *Vulture*, but went with him to a place of supposed safety, and before leaving him changed coats, in order to afford him better protection. Smith was afterwards tried by a military court and acquitted, but was rearrested by the civil authorities. After passing a few months in prison he escaped to New York in woman's dress, and was there protected by loyalists. He went to England at the conclusion of hostilities, but later returned to the United States. He was the author of *An Authentic Narrative of the Causes that led to the Death of Major André.* He died in New York City in 1818. See ANDRÉ, JOHN.

Smith, JOSIAH, clergyman; born in Charleston, S. C., in 1704; graduated at Harvard College in 1725; ordained in the Presbyterian Church in 1726; was an earnest advocate of American independence. When Charleston fell he was made a prisoner and died in confinement at Philadelphia, Pa., in October, 1781.

Smith, JUNIUS, lawyer; born in Plymouth, Mass., Oct. 2, 1780; graduated at Yale College in 1802; practised at the New Haven bar until 1805, when he was employed to prosecute a claim against the British government in the admiralty court of London. Successful, he afterwards embarked in commercial pursuits in connection with the United States, and won a fortune. In 1832 he engaged in the project for establishing a line of steamships to navigate the Atlantic Ocean from England to the United States. Through a prospectus, he pressed the matter upon the public mind, and succeeded, in 1836, in establishing the British and American Steam Navigation Company. The feasibility of the enterprise was proven in 1838 by the crossing of the Atlantic by the small steamer *Sirius*. Yet, before he could successfully carry out this grand project, which soon afterwards developed into vast importance, he engaged in an attempt to introduce the cultivation of the tea-plant into this country. He died in Astoria, N. Y., Jan. 23, 1853.

Smith, MELANCTHON, military officer; born in New York City in 1780; was commissioned major of the 29th United States Infantry, Feb. 20, 1813; and promoted to colonel in April following; commanded the principal fort at the battle of Plattsburg, N. Y., in September, 1814. Colonel Smith was an active member of the masonic order, and his funeral was directed by them. At his request, masonic emblems were placed on the elaborately wrought slab of blue limestone that marks his grave and bears the following inscription: "To the memory of Colonel Melancthon Smith who died Aug. 18, 1818, aged 38 years

As a testimony of respect for his virtues, and to mark the spot where rest the ashes of an excellent father, this stone is erect-

COLONEL SMITH'S MONUMENT.

ed by his son Richbill. United with many masculine virtues, he had a tear for pity, and an open hand for melting charity."

Smith, MELANCTHON, naval officer; born in New York City, May 24, 1810; son of the preceding; entered the navy as midshipman in 1826. He served in the Seminole War, and was in command of the steamer *Massachusetts* in 1861. He was active in the movements against New Orleans in 1862, and with the *Mississippi* he ran the ram *Manassas* ashore and destroyed her. His vessel grounded while passing Port Hudson (March 14, 1863), when he set her on fire. In May, 1864, he engaged the Confederate ram ALBEMARLE (*q. v.*), and was in command of the *Wabash* in both attacks on Fort Fisher. In 1870 was promoted rear-admiral; in 1871 was retired. He died in Green Bay, Wis., July 19, 1893.

Smith, MERIWETHER, statesman; born in Bathurst, Va., in 1730; member of the House of Burgesses, 1770; the Virginia conventions, 1775 and 1776; the Continental Congress, 1778–82; and the State convention which ratified the Constitution of the United States, 1788; and has been credited with the authorship of the Virginia Bill of Rights, and of the State constitution. He died Jan. 25, 1790.

Smith, MORGAN LEWIS, military officer; born in Oswego county, N. Y., March 8, 1822; removed to New Albany, Ind., in 1843; enlisted in the United States army as a private in 1846; rose to the rank of sergeant; resigned and engaged in the steamboat business. At the outbreak of the Civil War he re-entered the service; raised the 8th Missouri Regiment, whose members were bound by an oath never to surrender, and was chosen its colonel in 1861; brevetted brigadier-general, United States volunteers, in 1862. He fought at Fort Henry, Fort Donelson (where he made his famous charge up the hill in face of the enemy's fire), Shiloh, Corinth, Missionary Ridge, the Atlanta campaign, etc. Was dangerously wounded at Chickasaw Bayou. During his disability Gen. W. T. Sherman wrote him, under date of May 25, 1863: "No man would prefer more than I to send you first into Vicksburg, but as things now stand you must be content to have the honor in your family, and I hope Giles Smith will be the first to lead his brigade across that cursed ditch and parapet." Was temporarily in command of the 15th Army Corps. After the war he became United States consul at Honolulu, having declined the governorship of Colorado Territory. He died in Jersey City, N. J., Dec. 29, 1874.

Smith, PERSIFER FRAZER, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., November, 1798; graduated at Princeton in 1815; became a lawyer in New Orleans; was adjutant-general of Louisiana, and a volunteer under General Gaines in two campaigns of the Seminole War as colonel of Louisiana volunteers. When General Taylor went to the Rio Grande in 1846, Smith led a brigade of Louisiana volunteers under him. He was brevetted brigadier-general for his services at Monterey, and major-general for gallantry at Contreras and Churubusco in August, 1847. He was a commissioner in arranging the armistice before the city of Mexico, and after the conquest he was made civil and military governor of the city (October, 1847), and commander of the 2d Division of the United States Army. In 1848 he was governor of Vera Cruz, and subsequently commanded the departments of California and Texas. Just before his death, in

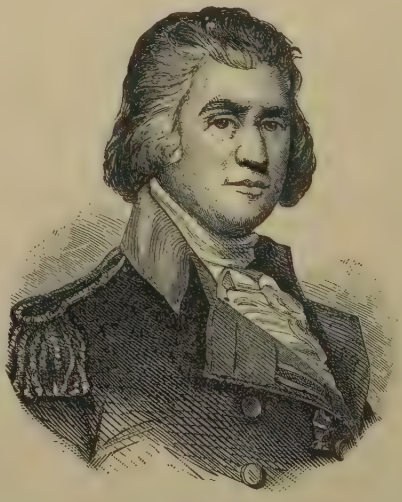
Fort Leavenworth, Kan., May 17, 1858, he was appointed to command the Utah expedition against the MORMONS (*q. v.*).

Smith, RICHARD, journalist; born in county Wexford, Ireland, Jan. 30, 1823; received a common school education; came to the United States and settled in Cincinnati, O., in 1841; apprenticed to a carpenter and builder; employed on the *Price Current*, and later became its proprietor; agent of the newly organized Associated Press; became interested in the Cincinnati *Gazette* in 1854, and later was its managing editor; and was also interested in the Cincinnati *Commercial*. In 1881 these two papers were consolidated under the title of the *Commercial-Gazette*, of which he was business manager. Mr. Smith was familiarly known as "Deacon Richard Smith." He died in Cincinnati, O., April 22, 1898.

Smith, RICHARD PENN, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., March 13, 1799; was admitted to the bar in 1821; editor and owner of the *Aurora* in 1822–27; then resumed the practice of law and gave much time to literary work. He was the author of *William Penn* (a comedy); *Life of David Crockett; Life of Martin Van Buren*, etc. He died in Falls of Schuylkill, Pa., Aug. 12, 1854.

Smith, ROBERT, statesman; born in Lancaster, Pa., in November, 1757; graduated at Princeton College in 1781. During the Revolutionary War he participated in the battle of Brandywine as a volunteer; was a member of the Maryland House of Delegates in 1796–1800; Secretary of the Navy in 1802–5; United States Attorney-General in 1805–9; and Secretary of State in 1809–11. He died in Baltimore, Md., Nov. 26, 1842.

Smith, SAMUEL, military officer; born in Lancaster, Pa., July 27, 1752; went to Baltimore with his father in 1760, and, receiving a common school education, entered his father's counting-room in 1771, and soon afterwards visited Europe in one of his father's vessels. He joined a volunteer company, and became captain in Smallwood's regiment in January, 1776; was in the battle of Long Island; was distinguished on Harlem Plains; and was wounded at White Plains. Captain Smith was in the retreat of Washington to the Delaware late in 1776; was lieutenant-colonel of a Maryland regiment in 1777; fought at Brandywine; and immediately afterwards was placed in command of Fort Mifflin, which weak and exposed work he gallantly defended from Sept. 26 to Nov. 11 against a British naval and land force; and in that affray was severely wounded. In the ensuing winter he suffered at Valley Forge; took an active part in the battle of Monmouth; and continued to do duty as a colonel of militia until the end of the war. Having lost his fortune during three years' service, he was compelled to resign his Continental commission late in 1778. He served a short time as Secretary of the Navy under Jefferson, and as major-general of Maryland troops did good service in the defence of Baltimore in 1814. General Smith was a member of Congress, either as Representative or United States Senator, from 1793 to 1833. When, in his eighty-third year (1835), a mob took possession of Baltimore, General Smith, at the call



SAMUEL SMITH.

of the citizens, led a force that effectually suppressed the disturbances, and he was afterwards elected mayor of the city, where he died, April 22, 1839.

Smith, SAMUEL FRANCIS, clergyman; born in Boston, Mass., Oct. 21, 1808; graduated at Harvard College in 1829, and at Andover Theological Seminary in

1832; was ordained minister of the Baptist church at Waterville, Me., in 1834, where he remained eight years, during a part of which time he was president of Waterville College. In 1842 he removed to Newton, Mass., and for six years, besides being pastor of the Baptist church

SAMUEL FRANCIS SMITH

at that place, he edited *The Christian Review,* of Boston. From 1848 to 1869 he was the editor of various Baptist publications, and during the same time performed a large amount of literary labor. In 1875–76, and also in 1880–82, he visited the Old World and made extensive tours, examining the chief missionary stations in Europe and Asia. It was while a student at the theological school that he wrote the famous hymn, now known and sung in every part of America:

> "My country, 'tis of thee,
> Sweet land of liberty,
> Of thee I sing;
> Land where my fathers died,
> Land of the pilgrims' pride,
> From every mountain-side
> Let freedom ring!"

It was written for a children's celebration of July 4 in Park Street Church, Boston, in 1832, and was first sung there. Mr. Smith died in Boston, Mass., Nov. 16, 1895.

Smith, THOMAS KILBY, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., Sept. 23, 1820; graduated at Cincinnati College in 1837; admitted to the bar in 1845. When the Civil War broke out he became lieutenant-colonel of the 54th Ohio Infantry; promoted colonel in October of the same year; and with his regiment was conspicuous for bravery at Pittsburg Landing, Corinth, and the Vicksburg campaign. He was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1863; won distinction in protecting the gunboats at Sabine Cross-roads when the National army fell back and the fleet withdrew down the river; was brevetted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865; and appointed United States consul at Panama in 1866. He died in New York City, Dec. 14, 1887.

Smith, URIAH, journalist; born in West Wilton, N. H., May 2, 1832; graduated at Phillips Exeter Academy in 1851; became editor of the *Review and Herald* in 1855; ordained a Seventh Day Adventist minister, Aug. 17, 1874; was the inventor of the automatic folding school-seat. He was author of *Our Country: the Marvel of Nations; Spiritualism a Sign of the Times;* etc. He died in 1903.

Smith, WILLIAM, clergyman; born in Aberdeen, Scotland, in 1727; graduated at the University of Aberdeen in 1747; emigrated to America in 1750; and, accepting an invitation to take charge of the College of Philadelphia, he went to England to receive ordination as a minister in the Protestant Episcopal Church. He was placed at the head of the college in 1754. He was its founder and first provost. It was the origin of the present University of Pennsylvania. Dr. Smith was distinguished for his patriotism and oratory. At the request of Congress he pronounced orations on the deaths of Gen-

eral Montgomery and Dr. Franklin, and these are considered masterpieces of English composition. He was the author of several works, religious, moral, philosophical, and historical, including *Brief Account of the Province of Pennsylvania;* and *Bouquet's Expedition Against the Western Indians.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 14, 1803.

Smith, WILLIAM, jurist; born in New York City, June 25, 1728; graduated at Yale College in 1745; became one of the leading lawyers in America; and was appointed judge of the Supreme Court of New York in 1763, and member of the council in 1769. When the Revolutionary War broke out he at first opposed the measures of government, but finally adhered to the crown and went to England at the end of the struggle in 1783. In November, 1786, he was appointed chief-justice of Canada. Judge Smith wrote *History of the Province of New York from its Discovery in 1732,* and, with William Livingston, published *Revised Laws of New York, 1690–1762.* He died in Quebec, Canada, Nov. 3, 1793.

Smith, WILLIAM, jurist; born in North Carolina in 1762; graduated at Mount Zion College, Winnsboro, S. C., in 1784; member of the State Senate in 1806–8; appointed circuit judge in the latter year; United States Senator in 1817–23; returned to the Senate in 1826 to fill out an unexpired term; and settled in Alabama in 1836. He died in Huntsville, Ala., June 10, 1840.

Smith, WILLIAM, lawyer; born in King George county, Va., Sept. 6, 1796; admitted to the bar in 1818; member of the State Senate in 1830–35; of Congress in 1840–42; chosen governor of Virginia by the legislature without being previously consulted, Jan. 1, 1846; member of Congress in 1853–61. He was then commissioned colonel of the 49th Virginia Infantry; promoted brigadier-general in 1862; and was re-elected governor in 1863. He was known as "Extra Billy," a sobriquet which arose from his demands for extra compensation for carrying the United States mail on a line of post-coaches in Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, which he established in early manhood. He died in Warrenton, Va., May 18, 1887.

Smith, WILLIAM FARRAR, military officer; born in St. Albans, Vt., Feb. 17, 1824; graduated at West Point in 1845; familiarly known in the army as "Baldy Smith." He was engaged in several important military surveys before the Civil War. When that began he was secretary of the light-house board at Washington. He became a brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861, having done good service in the battle of Bull Run the previous month. In the Peninsular campaign he was particularly distinguished, and was promoted to major-general (July, 1862). He commanded a division in Franklin's corps, and was in the battles of South Mountain and Antietam. He commanded the 6th Corps at Fredericksburg (December, 1862); was chief engineer of the Army of the Cumberland late in 1863; was active in operations about Chattanooga late in that year; and from May to July, 1864, commanded the 18th Corps, Army of the Potomac. He was brevetted major-general for "gallant and meritorious services during the Rebellion"; resigned from the volunteer army in 1865, and from the regular army in 1867; was for several years in the New York police department, and afterwards engaged in civil engineering. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Feb. 28, 1903.

Smith, WILLIAM HENRY, historian; a native of Indiana; educated in the common schools of the State and at the Indianapolis Academy; learned the printing trade, and was a reporter on an Indiana paper, and for some years the literary editor of the *Cincinnati Commercial Gazette.* Among his publications are *History of Indiana* (2 volumes, 8vo, 1898), *Reminiscences of American History; A History of Indiana during the Civil War,* etc.

Smith, WILLIAM HENRY, journalist; born in Columbia county, N. Y., Dec. 1, 1833; educated in Ohio; became editor of a Cincinnati weekly paper in 1855; was active in recruiting troops and forwarding sanitary supplies during the Civil War; secretary of State of Ohio in 1864–68. He then founded the Cincinnati *Evening Chronicle.* Later he managed the affairs of the Western Associated Press, with headquarters in Chicago. In 1883 he succeeded in uniting the Western Associated Press with the New York Associated Press,

and became manager of the consolidated association. He published a *Political History of the United States; The St. Clair Papers; Life of Rutherford B. Hayes*, etc. He died in Lake Forest, Ill., July 27, 1896.

Smith, William Loughton, diplomatist; born in Charleston, S. C., in 1758; educated abroad, where he also studied law. In 1788 he was chosen to represent South Carolina in the first Congress; appointed minister to Portugal in 1797, and held the same post in Spain in 1800–1. He was the author of *Speeches in the House of Representatives of the United States; Address to His Constituents; Fourth of July Oration; Comparative View of the Constitution of the States*, etc. He died in Charleston, S. C., in 1812.

Smithson, James Lewis Macie, philanthropist; place and date of birth not positively known, some authorities giving England about 1754, and others France in 1765. At the commencement of his will, he wrote: "I, James Smithson, son of Hugh, third Duke of Northumberland, and Elizabeth, heiress of the Hungerfords of Audley, and niece to Charles, the proud Duke of Somerset," without giving the date of his nativity. He took his degree at Oxford University (1786) under the surname of Macie, but between 1791 and 1803 he adopted the family name of Smithson. He was distinguished at the university as a chemist; became the associate of the leading scientists of the day; and was elected fellow of the Royal Society in 1787, to the *Transactions* of which he contributed eight papers. At his death, in Genoa, Italy, June 27, 1829, he left about 200 manuscripts, which seemed to be chiefly portions of a philosophical dictionary. In his will, dated Oct. 23, 1826, he bequeathed to his nephew the whole of his property, appraised at £120,000, or about $590,000, with the condition that, in case of the death of the latter without a child or children, the property was to go to the government of the United States to found, at the national capital, under the name of "The Smithsonian Institution," an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge. His nephew died in 1835, without heirs, and the property accordingly came into the possession of the government.

Richard Rush was sent to London to prosecute the claim. In September, 1838, he deposited in the United States mint the proceeds of the bequest in English sovereigns, which amounted to $515,169. By act of Congress, passed in 1846, it was provided that the institution should be placed under the control of a board of trustees, or regents, consisting of the President and Vice-President of the United States, the several members of the cabinet, the chief-justice of the Supreme Court, the commissioner of the patent office, and the mayor of Washington, during their respective terms of office, with such other persons as these may elect honorary members of the institution. Provision was made for the increase of the fund by the accumulation of interest for the purpose of erecting buildings and of other current and incidental expenses, such expenditures to be made wholly from accruing interest (the funds being loaned at 6 per cent.), and not from the principal. Grounds were chosen and a building was erected at a cost of about $500,000.

In December, 1846, the regents or board of trustees of the Smithsonian Institution, as it is called, chose Prof. Joseph Henry as their secretary, which office he held until his death, early in 1878. Provision was made for a library, museum, gallery of art, and lectures. Transactions of learned societies and scientific works were collected; the museum was enriched by the fruits of government explorations and the contributions of individual explorers; a gallery of art was commenced; and lectures, chiefly on scientific subjects, were delivered up to 1865, when a fire destroyed the lecture-room. Then a change was made in the arrangements. The library was incorporated with that of Congress, and its art collection was transferred to the Corcoran Art Gallery. The institution cooperates as far as practicable with other public institutions in Washington, D. C., for the diffusion of knowledge among men. It also distributes much valuable printed matter, chiefly on scientific subjects; and it gives assistance to geographical and other scientific researches. For many years it employed 500 regular meteorological observers scattered over every part of the continent. These operations were afterwards transferred to the United States

signal service. The publications of the institution are numerous and of the highest value, and have been distributed gratuitously among all the important scientific and learned associations of the world; and it receives in turn the *Transactions* of such societies.

Reports are made to Congress annually by the secretary of the institution. These, besides a popular analysis of the memoirs to be contained in the several forthcoming volumes of the *Contributions* to the institution, are accompanied by a synopsis of lectures and original and translated articles which introduce the student to information and topics of discussion much above the range of those usually presented even to the educated public. These reports are printed at the expense of Congress, and are circulated through the members of both Houses as well as by the institution itself. It keeps up a vast and continually increasing correspondence with all quarters of the globe; and each day brings to it accounts of real or supposed discoveries which are referred to the institution. In 1865 a residuary legacy of Smithson was received, amounting to $26,210. In 1876 the total permanent Smithson fund in the United States treasury, drawing interest at 6 per cent. in gold, amounted to $651,000. The remains of Mr. Smithson were disinterred at Genoa, brought to the United States, and reinterred on the grounds of the Smithsonian Institution in 1904.

Smokeless Powders. The value of smokeless powders in warfare on both land and sea was thoroughly proved in the war with Cuba. Colonel Roosevelt, in his testimony before the war investigating committee, said that while the guns of the artillery seemed to send death and destruction at every discharge, the thick clouds which the black gunpowder from our guns made told our location to the enemy, who, replying with smokeless powders, inflicted punishment on us without our being able to discover them and returning it.

It is remarkable that it was the effort to produce small-arms which gave longer ranges, with more searching powers, that led to the development of smokeless powder. A high authority on this subject says: "Its production had not been by design, and the desirability of even this property (smokelessness) at the time was questioned by high military authority." As a résumé of what may be considered the latest conclusions on this subject the same authority says: "At present there is unquestionable unanimity as to the desirability of the absence of smoke from the battle-field, but this absence of smoke is viewed by real soldiers not so much as a safeguard for themselves as for the advantage it carries with it in clearing the field for skilful action. The conclusion would seem to be that practical experience in the Santiago campaign sustains the claim that troops furnished with smokeless powder have the advantage over troops which are not so supplied. This conclusion should, however, in turn be qualified by the fact that many line officers of our army of high rank, prior to the campaign, openly and emphatically expressed their preference for the Springfield rifle, even using smoky powder."

Lyddite, which figured so extensively in the British-Boer War, is a high explosive named from a small town in Kent, England, and is composed of picrid acid brought into a dense state by fusion. Picrid acid is obtained by the action of nitric acid on phenol or carbolic acid. Its destructive effect in a shell is eleven times that of powder, and it kills more by air concussion than by flying fragments.

Smoky City. See IRON CITY; PITTSBURGH, PA.

Smoot, REED, legislator; born in Salt Lake City, Utah, Jan. 10, 1862; was educated at the State University and at Brigham Young Academy, and was graduated in 1879. He was connected with a number of banking and other enterprises. In 1895 he was appointed one of the Presidency Utah Stake, and in 1900 an apostle; and was elected to the United States Senate as a Republican in 1903. Immediately after his election a large number of protests were sent to the Senate against his admission, on the ground that he was living in violation of law, as a polygamist, which he denied; and the Committee on Privileges and Elections undertook an investigation of the charges, which was not completed till Feb. 20, 1907, when the Senate by a

vote of 27 to 42 refused to unseat him. He was then unanimously re-elected for the terms of 1909–15 and 1915–21.

Smuggling. The importation of merchandise into a country without the payment of duty. Also the bringing into a country of slaves or of prohibited individuals.

French colonial merchants at Louisburg (Cape Breton) maintained a considerable commerce with Boston, an irregularity overlooked by the garrison commandant because thence came a large share of his supplies. As early as 1725 Louisburg was becoming a considerable port of call for French vessels engaged in the West Indian trade, and ships from England and her colonies were often in the harbor. It was thus natural that sugar, coffee, and tobacco from the French West Indies, and wine and brandy from France, should be exchanged with New England fishermen for codfish; and brick, lumber, meal, rum, and many other New England commodities found their way into New France. Even the French fur-trade was confronted by this demoralizing practice. It has been shown that their forest merchants were unable to offer as high prices for furs, in barter, as the English, owing to the greater cost of obtaining goods suitable for the Indian trade through the monopoly which hung over them as a pall; whereas Englishmen enjoyed free trade and open competition. Wherever English traders could penetrate —into the Cherokee country, into the Ohio Valley, along the lower Great Lakes, on the Kennebec border, and upon the New York and New Hampshire frontier—the savages, keen at a bargain, would make long journeys to reach them with their pelts.

The British navigation laws and other laws to protect British manufacturers led to extensive smuggling during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Public officials and respectable merchants saw no moral delinquency in cheating the revenue officers. New York City was the principal port for smugglers, but Boston, Philadelphia, Charleston, and other cities participated. See KIDD, WILLIAM; NAVIGATION ACTS.

The most common forces of smuggling are practised in shipments from Europe to the United States, but of late years the vigilance of the customs officials has reduced the amount to a minimum. Passengers on steamers entering New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and other harbors formerly did an immense amount of smuggling, especially of jewels, laces, etc. The strict enforcement of the laws and the severe punishment imposed on convicted smugglers, both in fines and imprisonments, have reduced this form of smuggling, but as long as high duties are imposed there is the temptation to make money by evading customs duties.

Previous to 1860 there took place a sharp rise in the price of slaves, and, in consequence, the African slave-trade to Cuba and the United States increased surprisingly. The law was violated with impunity, and Buchanan's administration seemed unable or unwilling to prevent the traffic. But when British cruisers, in 1857 and 1858, searched suspected American vessels, not only off the coast of Africa, but even in the Gulf of Mexico, the Administration roused itself and protested strenuously against this renewed claim to a right of search. Secretary Toucey ordered United States men-of-war to proceed to Cuban waters to protect American vessels from "outrage," but the whole affair was ended with bewildering suddenness by the prompt admission of Lord Malmesbury to Dallas that the British government accepted entirely the principles laid down by the United States.

Chinese immigrants began to come into the United States in large numbers shortly after the Burlingame treaty. The result was that the labor situation in the Pacific coast States was almost revolutionized. White men could not compete with the Chinese, who could live on rice and work for a pittance. Congress was appealed to, and passed an exclusion act in 1879, but President Hayes vetoed it. Finally the act of 1888 was passed. Failing to enter the country openly, there arose a vast amount of smuggling of Chinese by way of British Columbia and Mexico.

Smybert, JOHN. See SMIBERT, JOHN.

Smyth, ALEXANDER, military officer; born on the island of Rathlin, Ireland, in 1765; removed to Virginia in 1775; ad-

mitted to the bar in 1789; became colonel of a rifle regiment in 1808. His failure to accomplish an invasion of Canada in the autumn of 1812, when he was in command of the American forces on the Niagara frontier, was openly attributed by Gen. Peter B. Porter, in command of the New York volunteers and militia on that frontier, to the cowardice of the former. Smyth, in his report to Dearborn, spoke disparagingly of Porter. A bitter quarrel ensued. The volunteers took the part of their beloved general, and for some time Smyth was in personal danger. He was fired at several times when he ventured from his marquee, and he was compelled to place a double guard around it, and to move it from place to place to avoid continual insults. At length Smyth challenged Porter—his second in command—to fight a duel. It was accepted. They both violated the articles of war in the challenge and acceptance. With friends, seconds, and surgeons, they repaired to Grand Island (Dec. 12, 1812), on the Niagara River, exchanged shots at 12 paces distance, and neither of them was hurt. The expected tragedy was a solemn comedy. The affair took the usual ridiculous course—settled by the seconds. General Porter acknowledged that he considered Smyth "a man of courage," and Smyth declared Porter to be "above suspicion as a gentleman and an officer." So ended the melodrama of Smyth's invasion of Canada. General Smyth was removed from the army without trial. He afterwards petitioned Congress to reinstate him, declaring in his memorial that he asked the privilege of "dying for his country." The phrase was ridiculed by his enemies. At a public celebration at Georgetown, D. C., on Washington's birthday in 1814, the following toast was offered: "General Smyth's petition to Congress to 'die for his country'—May it be ordered that the prayer of said petitioner be granted." A wag wrote on the panel of the door of the House of Representatives:

"All hail, great chief! who quailed before
A *Bisshopp* on Niagara's shore;
But looks on *Death* with dauntless eye,
And begs for leave to bleed and die.
O my!"

Concerning his pompous proclamations and his signal failure in performances, a wag wrote:

"Just so (and every wiser head the likeness can discover)
We put a *chestnut* in the fire and pull the embers over;
Awhile it waxes hot and hotter, and eke begins to hop,
And, after much confounded pother, explodes a mighty *Pop!*"

General Smyth had many good social qualities, and had "troops of friends." He was a faithful representative of his district (in Virginia) in Congress from 1817 to 1825, and again from 1827 until his death in Washington, D. C., April 17, 1830.

Smythe, William Ellsworth, journalist; born in Worcester, Mass., Dec. 24, 1861; received an academic education; settled in the West in 1888, and was there editor of various papers. He is the author of *The Conquest of Arid America*, and magazine articles, including *The Irrigation Idea; Arid America; Ultimate California; The Mormon Industrial System; Real Utopias of the Arid West; The Step-child of the Republic;* and *The Struggle for Water in the West.*

Snake Indians. See Shoshoni Indians.

Snelling, Josiah, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., in 1782; served in the war against Tecumseh; promoted captain in June, 1809, and won distinction at Tippecanoe; was conspicuous for gallantry during the second war with England, taking part in the battles of Lundy's Lane, Chippewa, and Fort Erie. He refused to raise a flag of truce at the fall of Detroit, and while a prisoner declined to take his hat off to Nelson's monument, despite the efforts of the British soldiers to force him to remove it. Finally, he was freed from embarrassment by the command of Gen. Isaac Brock, who ordered the British soldiers to "respect the scruples of a brave man." He was promoted lieutenant-colonel in 1815 and colonel in 1819. He was the author of *Remarks on Gen. William Hull's Memoirs of the Campaign of the Northwestern Army, 1812.* He died in Washington, D. C., Aug. 20, 1829.

Snow, Caleb Hopkins, physician; born in Boston, Mass., April 1, 1796; graduated at Brown University in 1813, and received his medical degree there in 1821

His publications include *History of Boston, with Some Account of Its Environs,* and a *Geography of Boston and Adjacent Towns.* He died in Boston, Mass., July 6, 1835.

Snow, LORENZO, Mormon; born in Mantua, O., April 3, 1814; educated at Oberlin College; was converted to the Mormon faith in 1836, and later visited various countries as a missionary. He was a member of the Utah legislature in 1852–82; ordained an apostle Feb. 12, 1849; elected president of the twelve apostles in 1889; president of the temple in 1893–98; and became president of the Mormon Church, Sept. 13, 1898. His publications include *The Italian Mission; The Only Way to be Saved; The Voice of Joseph; The Palestine Tourists,* and a translation of the *Book of Mormon* into Italian. He died in Salt Lake City, Oct. 10, 1901.

Snowden, JAMES ROSS, numismatist; born in Chester, Pa., in 1810; graduated at Dickinson College in 1827; admitted to the bar and began practice in Franklin, Pa.; was treasurer of the United States mint in 1847–50, and director in 1853–61. He was the author of *Descriptions of Coin in the United States Mint; Description of the Medals of Washington, of National and Miscellaneous Medals, and of Other Objects of Interest in the Museum of the Mint, with Biographical Notices of the Directors from 1792 to 1851; The Mint at Philadelphia,* etc. He died in Hulmeville, Pa., March 21, 1878.

Snyder, CHRISTOPHER, patriot; born about 1755. During the agitation on the subject of non-importation in 1770 several merchants kept on sale articles which had been proscribed. One of these merchants, Theophilus Lillie, became so obnoxious to the public that on Feb. 23 a mob, mostly of half-grown boys, raised a pole near Lillie's shop, on the top of which was a wooden head with the names of the importers written upon it, and a hand pointing to Lillie's shop. Ebenezer Richardson, a friend of Lillie's, tried to remove the figure, but was driven into Lillie's house by the mob. He soon returned with a musket and fired a random shot which fatally wounded Snyder, who died in the evening of the same day. Snyder's murder caused excitement throughout the country. At his funeral, on Feb. 26, 500 children marched before his bier, and his body was taken to the liberty tree, where nearly 1,500 people had convened, while the bells of Boston and neighboring towns were tolled. Accounts of Snyder and his funeral appeared in all the newspapers, and he was hailed as the first martyr to American liberty. Richardson was arrested and declared guilty of murder, but Lieut.-Gov. Thomas Hutchinson declined to sign his death-warrant, and after spending two years in prison he was freed by the King.

Snyder, SIMON, military officer; born in Selin's Grove, Pa., Feb. 9, 1839; joined the National army as second lieutenant of the 5th Infantry, April 26, 1861; served with distinction during the Civil War; was conspicuous for gallantry in the battle with the Indians at Bear Paw Mountain, Mont., Sept. 30, 1877; commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers, May 4, 1898; commanded a brigade en route to the province of Santa Clara, Cuba, November, 1898, to January, 1899; was governor of that province from Dec. 6, 1898, to Jan. 25, 1899; subsequently was on special duty in Ponce, Porto Rico. He was mustered out of the volunteer service on May 12, 1899, and with his regiment was ordered to the Philippine Islands, where he won distinction on the firing-lines. He was appointed brigadier-general, U. S. A., April 16, 1902, and retired the next month.

Social Democracy of America, THE, a society instituted in 1897 for the purpose of realizing the socialist idea of co-operation in the political commonwealth. The Social Democracy succeeded to the American Railway Union, and its first president was Eugene V. Debs, formerly president of the American Railway Union. It purposed to acquire in one of the less densely inhabited States or Territories a considerable area of wild land by purchase or by gift, and on that land to plant a colony of workmen and their families. The necessary funds were to come from the small monthly contributions of the members of the society throughout the country. From this source it was confidently expected that at least $25,000 a month would be received. When a sufficient sum had been received to warrant the beginning of operations on the land, a force of picked

men was to be sent to the site to prepare the soil for cultivation. Then men were to be sent to organize herds of cattle, and with them an army of lumbermen, sawmill workers, and carpenters and builders, to erect dwellings for the colonists, also flour-mills, factories, creameries, etc. Among the settlers in the colony would be men of every trade and calling—shoemakers, weavers, tailors, blacksmiths, machinists, railroad men; and all would find employment in supplying the wants of all. The land would belong to the community; so would the machinery of manufacture, as also the system of transportation, railways, and common highways, together with the telegraph and telephone systems. In short, whatever is naturally a monopoly or can be made a monopoly would belong to the community and be managed in the interest of the community. The intention of the Social Democracy was to establish, not one, but many colonies or communities, each of about 500 adult men; this was to be the unit of political organization; and the limit of 500 was set in order to prevent the growth of enough power in any one place to cause trouble. When a number of such communities have been established in a State or Territory, they will be organized centrally; when the members are sufficiently numerous they will aim to get possession, by lawful and constitutional means—*i. e.*, by the use of the ballot—of the political powers of the State or Territory, and to organize that according to the principles of the Social Democracy, so far as the Constitution of the United States may permit. Immediately after the publication of the Social Democracy's plan, the governor of the State of Washington, J. R. Rogers, invited the society to take into consideration the advantages possessed by that State for such colonies, but later it was announced from Washington that Col. Richard J. Hinton, chairman of the Social Democracy's colonization commission, had signed papers by which title to 350,000 acres of land in Cumberland and Fentrass counties, Tenn., was transferred to the society. Col. Hinton said that the Tennessee colony would be the first organized and that colonies would be settled in Idaho and Washington next. The Tennessee lands cost $1,750,000; the Kentucky Trust Company supplied the commission with the money, accepting the commission's bonds for $2,000,000, which left a margin of $250,000 with which to begin work.

Social-Democratic Party, a political organization in the United States, which in national convention in Indianapolis, Ind., March 7, 1900, adopted the following declaration of principles:

The Social-Democratic party of America declares its object to be:

First. The organization of the working-class into a political party to conquer the public powers now controlled by capitalists.

Second. The abolition of wage-slavery by the establishment of a national system of co-operative industry, based upon the social or common ownership of the means of production and distribution, to be administered by society in the common interest of all its members, and the complete emancipation of the socially useful classes from the domination of capitalism.

The working-class and all those in sympathy with their historic mission to realize a higher civilization should sever connection with all capitalist and reform parties and unite with the Social Democratic party of America.

The control of political power by the Social-Democratic party will be tantamount to the abolition of all class rule.

The solidarity of labor connecting the millions of class-conscious fellow-workers throughout the civilized world will lead to international Socialism, the brotherhood of man.

As steps in that direction, we make the following demands:

First. Revision of our federal Constitution, in order to remove the obstacles to complete control of government by the people irrespective of sex.

Second. The public ownership of all industries controlled by monopolies, trusts, and combines.

Third. The public ownership of all railroads, telegraphs, and telephones; all means of transportation and communication; all water-works, gas and electric plants, and other public utilities.

Fourth. The public ownership of all gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, coal, and other mines, and all oil and gas wells.

Fifth. The reduction of the hours of labor in proportion to the increasing facilities of production.

Sixth. The inauguration of a system of public works and improvements for the employment of the unemployed, the public credit to be utilized for that purpose.

Seventh. Useful inventions to be free, the inventor to be remunerated by the public.

Eighth. Labor legislation to be national instead of local, and international when possible.

Ninth. National insurance of working-people against accidents, lack of employment, and want in old age.

Tenth. Equal civil and political rights for men and women, and the abolition of all laws discriminating against women.

Eleventh. The adoption of the initiative and referendum, proportional representation, and the right of recall of representatives by the voters.

Twelfth. Abolition of war and the introduction of international arbitration.

The party nominated Eugene V. Debs, of Indiana, for President, and Job Harriman, of California, for Vice-President in 1900, receiving 84,000 votes. See SOCIALIST LABOR PARTY.

Socialism, a word now employed in several different senses. Loosely, it includes all schemes for abolishing social inequality, and in this sense it is generally distinguished as utopian socialism, under which designation communities like those of the Essenes, the early Christians, and the Shakers in the United States at the present day, and the ideal commonwealths of Plato, More, and Harington, are to be classed. St. Simon (1760–1825), Owen (1771-1858), and Fourier (1768–1830) were the leading modern Utopians. Scientific socialism is an economic theory which affirms that the materials from which labor produces wealth—*i. e.*, the land—should be the property of the community, not of individuals forming a separate class. Socialists also demand that the existing capital, having (as they contend) been unjustly appropriated by the landholding class or its assignees, be restored, with the land, to the community. It vests all authority in the hands of delegates elected by the community, and seeks to substitute public co-operation for private enterprise in supplying all social needs. Modern socialism is of European origin. In the first half of the nineteenth century, F. D. Maurice (1805–72), and Charles Kingsley (1819–75), two English clergymen, advocated a large extension of the system of co-operation. The work begun by them is carried on on more extended lines by Christian socialism, which "claims to be the result of applying Christ's teaching to national, social, and commercial life, and not merely to personal conduct. Those who hold this view maintain that Christ said little as to a future state, but much of bettering the conditions of life in this world. They point out that he consistently placed the community before the individual, and taught that the foundation of society is brotherhood, not competition for profit, as now with us. Christian Socialists adopt that name because they believe that a really Christian society must be what is called socialistic."

Scientific socialism embraces:

1. Collectivism: An ideal socialistic state of society, in which the functions of the government will include the organization of all the industries of the country. In a collectivist state every person would be a state official, and the state would be coextensive with the whole people. Safeguards would be provided against the formation of an oligarchy by the controlling officials.

2. Anarchism (meaning mistrust of government, and not abandonment of social order) would secure individual liberty against encroachment on the part of the state in the socialistic commonwealth. Anarchists deny that the legislation of yesterday is enlightened enough for the affairs of to-day, and seek to make laws and other institutions as fluid as possible. They admit no authority except that which carries conviction, and would treat an incorrigible criminal as a dangerous lunatic. The assassins of the Empress of Austria, the King of Italy, and President McKinley are the practical exponents of this criminal theory. They are divided into Mutualists, who hope to attain their ends by banks of exchange and free currency, and Communists, whose motto is "From every man according to his capacity, to every man according to his needs."

The following is a short chronology of the leading events in modern socialism:

Sir Thomas More publishes his *Utopia*. 1516
A work on socialism, *Civitas Solis*, by Campanella, appears..... 1623
Shakers form their first complete community at Mount Lebanon, N. Y..... 1787
François Noëf Babœuf, leader of the French communistic insurrection of 1796, at Paris, is guillotined. May 24, 1797
Harmonists settle in Pennsylvania..... 1804
Charles Fourier, French (1772-1837), publishes his work, *The Theory of the Four Movements and the General Destinies* 1808
Zoarites settle in Ohio..... 1817
Robert Owen advocates a socialistic community before the English House of Commons' committee on the poor-law 1817
Count C. H. de Saint-Simon, founder of French socialism, author of *Nouveau Christianisme*, and other socialistic works, born 1760, died..... 1825
Constitution of the "New Harmony Community of Equality," signed... Jan. 12, 1826
Unsuccessful trial of Fourierism made on an estate near Versailles; only one during the lifetime of Fourier... 1832
Louis Blanc, French (1813-82), publishes his *Organization of Labor* in the *Revue du Progrès*..... 1840
Pierre Joseph Proudhon publishes his work, *What is Property?* affirming, "Property is theft"..... 1840
Albert Brisbane publishes his *Social Destiny of Man*..... 1840
Karl Rodbertus, German (1805-75), publishes his book, *Our Economic Condition* 1842
Christian Metz establishes a community at Ebenezer, N. Y..... 1842
A column in the New York *Tribune* edited by Albert Brisbane, the apostle of Fourierism..... 1842
Brisbane establishes in New York an independent paper called the *Phalanx*, organ of Fourierism.....Oct. 5, 1843
Convention of Associationists at Clinton Hall, N. Y.....April 4, 1844
"Brook Farm," established in 1842, adopts the principles of Fourierism.. 1844
The *Phalanx* succeeded by the *Harbinger*, and published at Brook Farm. June 14, 1845
Erick Janson forms a Swedish colony of Pietists and Separatists at Bishop Hill, Ill. (incorporated in 1853)..... 1846
Decline of Fourierism in the United States marked by the Greeley-Raymond controversy, Nov. 20, 1846, to May 20, 1847
Oneida community established..... 1847
Christian socialism, under Kingsley, Maurice, Hughes, etc., arises in England .....about 1850
Ferdinand Lassalle founds the German Social Democratic party..... 1862
Universal German Laborers' Union, under the leadership of Lassalle, formed at Leipsic.....May 23, 1863
Delegates of all nations in St. Martin's Hall, London, form the International Workingmen's Association...Sept. 28, 1864
Band of disciples of Lassalle organized in New York..... 1865
Universal congress, for advancement and complete emancipation of the working-classes, at Geneva, Switzerland.....Sept. 3, 1866
Karl Marx, German (1818-83), publishes his work, *Das Kapital*, called the Bible of the Social Democrats... 1867
Brocton community founded by Rev. Thomas Lake Harris.....Oct., 1867
Catholic socialism in Germany organized 1868
International congress at The Hague (six delegates from America) results in the formation of a new international association on anarchistic principles under leadership of Michael Bakounine, and removal of seat of general council of the old association, which soon after ceased to exist, to New York. Congress held..Sept. 2-7, 1872
"Union of Social Politics" formed by German professorial socialists at Eisenach .....Oct., 1872
Universal socialistic congress opens at Ghent.....Sept. 9, 1877
Workingmen's party in the United States reorganized as "The Socialistic Labor Party".....Jan., 1878
Henry George publishes his work entitled *Progress and Poverty*..... 1879
Social Democratic federation organized in England, favoring "Co-operative communism, international republicanism, and atheistic humanism"..... 1881
Leading principles of state socialism of Bismarck announced in an imperial message to the German Reichstag.. Nov., 1881
Great mass-meeting held in Cooper Union, New York City, to honor the memory of Karl Marx (died March 14, 1883).....March 19, 1883
William Morris, poet, author of the *Earthly Paradise*, H. M. Hyndman, H. H. Champion, and John Burns, become leaders of the "Socialistic League," formed..... 1886
Bellamy's *Looking Backward* published. 1888

Quite a large number of clubs were organized in various parts of the country soon after the publication of Mr. Bellamy's book, but few have survived.

Socialist Labor Party, a political organization in the United States whose purposes are set forth in the following platform adopted in New York City, in June, 1900:

The Socialist Labor party of the United States, in convention assembled, re-

asserts the inalienable right of all men, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

With the founders of the American republic we hold that the purpose of government is to secure every citizen in the employment of this right; but in the light of our social conditions we hold, furthermore, that no such right can be exercised under a system of economic inequality, essentially destructive of life, of liberty, and of happiness.

We hold that the true theory of politics is that the machinery of government must be owned and controlled by the whole people; but in the light of our industrial development we hold, furthermore, that the true theory of economics is that the machinery of production must likewise belong to the people in common.

To the obvious fact that our despotic system of economics is the direct opposite of our democratic system of politics can plainly be traced the existence of a privileged class, the corruption of government by that class, the alienation of public property, public franchises, and public functions to that class, and the abject dependence of the mightiest of nations upon that class.

Again, through the perversion of democracy to the ends of plutocracy, labor is robbed of the wealth which it alone produces, is denied the means of self-employment, and, by compulsory idleness in wage slavery, is even deprived of the necessaries of life.

Human power and natural forces are thus wasted that plutocracy may rule.

Ignorance and misery, with all their concomitant evils, are perpetuated, that the people may be kept in bondage.

Science and invention are diverted from their humane purpose to the enslavement of women and children.

Against such a system the Socialist Labor party once more reiterates its fundamental declaration that private property in the natural sources of production and in the instruments of labor is the obvious cause of all economic servitude and political dependence.

We, therefore, call upon the wage workers of the United States, and upon all other honest citizens, to organize under the banner of the Socialist Labor party into a class-conscious body, aware of its rights and determined to conquer them by taking possession of the public powers; so that, held together by an indomitable spirit of solidarity under the most trying conditions of the present class struggle, we may put a summary end to that barbarous struggle by the abolition of classes, the restoration of the land and of all the means of production, transportation, and distribution to the people as a collective body, and the substitution of the co-operative commonwealth for the present state of planless production, industrial war, and social disorder—a commonwealth in which every worker shall have the free exercise and full benefit of his faculties, multiplied by all the modern factors of civilization.

The Socialist Labor party put its first Presidential ticket in the field in 1892, with Simon Wing, of Massachusetts, for President, and Charles H. Matchett, of New York, for Vice-President, and received a popular vote of 21,164. In 1896 it nominated Charles H. Matchett, of New York, and Matthew Maguire, of New Jersey, and received 36,274 votes; in 1900 the candidates were Joseph F. Maloney, of Massachusetts, and Valentine Remmel, of Pennsylvania—vote, 38,739; in 1904, Charles H. Corrigan, of New York, and William W. Cox, of Illinois—vote, 31,249; in 1908, August Gilhaus, of New York, and Donald L. Munro, of Virginia—vote, 13,825.

Social Service, American Institute of. See American Institute of Social Service.

Societies, Literary and Scientific. In nearly every State and in many counties and cities there is an historical society, with a library and growing archæological collection. The Philadelphia Library, founded by Benjamin Franklin, in 1731; the Academy of Natural Sciences, in Philadelphia, founded in 1812; the New York Geographical Society, founded in 1852; the American Association for the Advancement of Science, founded in 1847, etc. See American Learned Societies.

Societies, Religious and Benevolent. The United States abounds in these associations and establishments. The Christian Church was for a long time the only existing one. Finally out of it grew so-

cieties for the promotion of Christianity and morality, and institutions to aid the afflicted. The first society for the publication and distribution of religious knowledge was the Methodist Book Concern, established in Philadelphia in 1789, and removed to New York in 1804. In 1803 the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge was organized, and seems to have been the first undenominational tract society established. Many local tract societies soon afterwards appeared. The New England Tract Society was founded at Andover in 1812. In 1823 it changed its name to American Tract Society, and removed to Boston. In 1825 the American Tract Society—a new organization—was established in New York, and the elder society became a branch of it. It remained so until 1859, when the hesitancy of the New York society to publish tracts or essays on slavery caused the Boston society to resume its independent organization.

There are several denominational tract and publication societies—namely, the Methodist Episcopal Book Concern, founded in 1789; the Baptist Publication Society, founded in 1824; the Congregational Publication Society, organized in 1829; the Presbyterian Board of Publications, established in 1833; the Protestant Episcopal Evangelical Knowledge Society, founded in 1847; the Protestant Episcopal Church Book Society, founded in 1854; the Reformed Church Board of Publication Society, organized in 1854; and the New Jerusalem (Swedenborgian) Tract and Publication Society, established in 1863. The first Bible society in the United States was founded in Philadelphia in 1802, and when the American Bible Society was organized, in 1816, there were between fifty and sixty local Bible societies in the Union. The Baptists seceded from the American Bible Society in 1836, and founded the American and Foreign Bible Society, conducted entirely by that denomination. It has published the Scriptures in more than forty languages. In 1850 a secession from the Baptist society occurred, when the American Bible Union was founded.

Attention was early called to the necessity of missionary work among the Indians and negroes in America. The English Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts had begun the work. In 1810 the first foreign missionary society in the United States was founded, and called the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions. It followed the English society in the exclusion of a denominational basis, but it has been largely controlled by the Congregationalists and Presbyterians. The Reformed (Dutch) Church separated from it, and organized a denominational board in 1857. There was another secession in 1870, when the "new school" branch of the Presbyterian Church withdrew and gave their support to the Presbyterian board mentioned below. As early as 1814, the American Baptist Missionary Union was formed. The Protestant Episcopal Church organized a board of missions in 1820. The Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church was organized in 1837, and was sustained by the "old school" churches, while the other branch co-operated with the American board until 1870, as above mentioned. In 1859 a United Presbyterian Missionary Society was formed. Other denominations sustain foreign missions, and all are earnestly engaged in domestic missions.

The first temperance society in the United States was formed in 1789 by 200 farmers in Litchfield county, Conn., who agreed not to use distilled liquors in doing their farm-work. Organized temperance societies began to be formed in 1811, but the total abstinence principle was not adopted until 1836, when a national convention held at Saratoga took that higher stand. The Washington Society, the first founded upon that principle, was organized in Baltimore in 1840 by six men of intemperate habits. At the first anniversary of the society 1,000 reformed drunkards were in the procession. Young Men's Christian Associations were first organized in America in 1852. These have rapidly increased in number and usefulness.

The first public hospital established within the domain of the republic was opened at Boston in 1717 for the use of persons sick with any contagious disease. It was merely a "pest-house." The first general hospital chartered in the colonies was the Pennsylvania Hospital, created

in 1751. Twenty years afterwards the second one—the New York Hospital—was chartered. Hospitals are now more abundant in the United States than in any other part of the world in proportion to population. Asylums for the deaf and dumb, the blind, the idiotic, the insane, for orphans, and for juveniles abound, and thousands continually enjoy the blessings which they provide.

The first public asylum for the deaf and dumb was opened at Hartford, Conn., in 1817; and at the same time the second—the New York Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb—was chartered. The first public asylum for the blind was the Perkins Institute and Massachusetts Asylum, founded in 1829. It was opened in 1832, under the superintendence of Dr. Samuel G. Howe (*q. v.*), who treated the complicated infirmities of Laura Bridgman successfully. The first asylum for the insane in this country was founded at Williamsburg, Va., in 1773, and was the only one in the United States until 1818, when another was established at Somerville, Mass. That was followed by the Bloomingdale Asylum, New York, in 1821, and the asylum at Hartford in 1824. The Moravians in Georgia established the first orphan asylum in the American colonies about 1738, and Rev. George Whitefield laid the foundation-stone of one 10 miles from Savannah in 1740.

Preventive and reformatory institutions are among our most important public charities. The first of the kind in the United States was the New York House of Refuge for Juvenile Delinquents, founded in 1824. It was opened at the beginning of 1825. It still exists, and occupies a considerable space on Randall's Island, East River. Care for the bodily comfort and social condition of seamen—a greatly neglected class of citizens—has been manifested for many years. As early as 1801 Capt. Robert R. Randall, of New York, founded the Sailors' Snug Harbor, on Staten Island; and, later, benevolent citizens established the Seamen's Friend Society in New York City. The latter effort has been blessed with great success. The society provides good boarding-houses and a home for seamen when in port. The latter, situated in Cherry Street, New York, is provided with a reading-room and museum, conveniences for bathing, and wholesome dormitories, and a Seamen's Saving Bank is in operation. Since the Civil War homes have been provided in various places for disabled sailors and soldiers, and these men have learned that a republic is not always ungrateful. So prevalent is a spirit of benevolence in the United States that everywhere societies, of various names and objects, for the alleviation of the distressed and the enlightenment of the ignorant, are popular and flourishing.

Some of the oldest associations among us were organized with a benevolent purpose. Such was the object of the Cincinnati Society (*q. v.*). The New York Chamber of Commerce, the oldest institution of the kind in our country, was established by twenty merchants in 1768 "for the purpose of promoting and extending all just and lawful commerce; and for affording relief to decayed members and their widows and children." The Tammany Society, or Columbian Order, founded in 1789, was organized as a patriotic, social, and benevolent institution.

Society of Colonial Wars, instituted in 1892 to "perpetuate the memory of these events and of the men who, in military, naval, and civil positions of high trust and responsibility, by their acts or counsel assisted in the establishment, defence, and preservation of the American Colonies, and were in truth the founders of this nation. With this end in view it seeks to collect and preserve manuscripts, rolls, and records; to provide suitable commemorations or memorials relating to the American Colonial period, and to inspire in its members the paternal and patriotic spirit of their forefathers, and in the community respect and reverence for those whose public services made our freedom and unity possible." Eligibility is confined to an adult male descendant of an ancestor who fought in battle under Colonial authority, from the settlement of Jamestown, Va., in 1607, to the battle of Lexington, in 1775, or who served as governor, deputy-governor, lieutenant-governor, member of the council, or as a military, naval, or marine officer in the service of the Colonies, or under the banner of Great Britain, or was

conspicuous in military, official, or legislative life during that period.

Society of the Army of Santiago de Cuba, organized in the governor's palace at Santiago de Cuba, July 31, 1898. The constitution of the society makes the following provisions:

The purpose of this organization is to record the history and conserve the memory of the events of the campaign which resulted in the surrender, on July 17, 1898, of the Spanish army, the city of Santiago de Cuba, and the military province to which it pertained.

The membership of the society shall consist of all officers and soldiers of the United States army (including acting assistant surgeons and authorized volunteer aides) who constituted the expeditionary force to Santiago de Cuba, and who worthily participated in the campaign between the dates of June 14 and July 17, 1898, and who shall signify their wish for membership by making application and paying the dues.

Society of the Sons of War Veterans, an organization composed of the male lineal descendants above the age of eighteen years of honorably discharged Union soldiers, sailors, or marines who served in the war of 1861–65 for a period of not less than six months (a part of said service having been at the front), unless discharged on account of wounds received in battle or killed in the discharge of duty.

The objects are "to preserve and perpetuate the principles for which our ancestors fought in battle, to support, aid, and assist the Union soldiers and their widows, and for mutual benefit and advancement."

Society of the War of 1812, instituted as a military society by the veterans of the War of 1812, on Jan. 3, 1826, in the city of New York, and incorporated under the laws of the State of New York by the surviving veteran members Jan. 8, 1892.

The original members comprise those who actually served in the military or naval forces of the United States during the War of 1812, or on vessels other than merchant ships which sailed under commissions of letters of marque and reprisal from the United States in that war.

Eligibility to hereditary membership is confined to descendants of commissioned officers who actually served in the War of 1812, and descendants of former members of the society in the State of New York, and of other military societies of 1812.

The purposes of the order are to inspire among the members and among the American people the patriotic spirit of the men who, during the War of 1812, defended their country against hostile encroachments on its rights and interests and caused its sovereignty and independence to be respected; to inculcate and maintain the great principles of the laws of nations for which they contended; to collect and preserve the manuscript rolls, records, and other documents relating to that war, and to commemorate the land and naval victories of the American arms in that war; to undertake and assist in the erection of proper memorials thereof; to perpetuate the mutual friendships formed in that war under the pressure of common danger, and to promote fellowship among the members of every degree.

Softs. See HUNKERS.

Sojourner Truth, lecturer; born of negro slave parents in Ulster county, N. Y., about 1775. When ten years old she was purchased by John J. Dumont, and though she was free under the emancipation law of New York State enacted in 1817, she did not secure her liberty till 1827, when she escaped to New York City. Later she resided in Northampton, Mass. In 1851 she commenced a lecturing tour in western New York in company with several abolitionists, and afterwards travelled in different parts of the United States, speaking on temperance, politics, women's rights, and the negro question. She was nearly 6 feet tall, had a strong voice, and though she could neither read nor write was a great attraction as a lecturer. During her tours she carried with her a book entitled *The Book of Life,* in which appeared the autographs of notable abolitionists. Her real name was Isabella, but she adopted the name Sojourner, holding that God had whispered it to her, and appended the word Truth to indicate that she would always preach truth. She died in Battle Creek, Mich., Nov. 26, 1883.

Solberg, THORVALD, author; born in Manitowoc, Wis., April 22, 1852; received a common school education; was on the

staff of the librarian of Congress in 1876–89; manager of the literary department of the Boston Book Company in 1889–97. He was largely instrumental in securing international copyright, being present at the international copyright congresses in Barcelona, 1893; Antwerp, 1894; and Paris, in 1900; and was appointed register of copyrights July 15, 1897. He is the author of *International Copyright in the Congress of the United States, 1837–86; International Copyright; The Copyright; The Copyright Law of the United States in Force; Directions for the Registration of Copyrights under the Laws of the United States; Copyright Enactments, 1783–1900;* and *Copyright, Its Law and Its Literature* (with R. R. Bowker).

Soldiers and Sailors Homes, institutions provided by national and State governments for the care of sick and disabled soldiers and sailors. The National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers has branches at Dayton, O.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Togus, Me.; Hampton, Va.; Leavenworth, Kan.; Santa Monica, Cal.; Marion, Ind., Danville, Ill.; Johnson City, Tenn.; and Hot Springs, S. D. Inmates, about 35,000.

The requirements for admission are:

1. An honorable discharge from the United States service.

2. Disability which prevents the applicant from earning his living by labor.

3. Applicants for admission will be required to stipulate and agree to abide by all the rules and regulations made by the board of managers, or by its order; to perform all duties required of them, and to obey all the lawful orders of the officers of the home. Attention is called to the fact that by the law establishing the home the members are made subject to the rules and articles of war, and will be governed thereby in the same manner as if they were in the army of the United States.

4. A soldier or sailor must forward with his application for admission his discharge paper, and when he is a pensioner, his pension certificate, and if he has been a member of a State home, his discharge from that home, before his application will be considered; which papers will be retained at the branch to which the applicant is admitted, to be kept there for him, and returned to him when he is discharged. This rule is adopted to prevent the loss of such papers and certificates, and to hinder fraudulent practices; and no application will be considered unless these papers are sent with it. If the original discharge does not exist, a copy of discharge, certified by the War or Navy Department, or by the adjutant-general of the State, must accompany the application.

Soldiers or sailors whose pensions exceed $16 a month are not eligible to the home unless the reasons are peculiar, and are explained to the manager and are satisfactory to him. Those who have been members of State homes must have been discharged from those homes at least six months before they can be admitted to a branch of the National Home, except by a vote of the board of managers.

There are State homes for disabled volunteer soldiers provided by the States of California, Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

The United States Soldiers Home in the District of Columbia receives and maintains discharged soldiers of the regular army. All soldiers who have served twenty years as enlisted men in the army (including volunteer service, if any), and all soldiers of less than twenty years service who have incurred such disability, by wounds, disease, or injuries in the line of duty while in the regular army, as unfits them for further service, are entitled to the benefits of the home.

A pensioner who enters the home may assign his pension, or any part of it, to his child, wife, or parent, by filing written notice with the agent who pays him. If not so assigned, it is drawn by the treasurer of the home and held in trust for the pensioner, to whom it is paid in such sums as the commissioners deem proper while he is an inmate of the home, the balance being paid in full when he takes his discharge and leaves the home.

Inmates are subject to the rules and articles of war, the same as soldiers in the army. They are comfortably lodged, fed, and clothed, and receive medical at-

tendance and medicine, all without cost to them. There are 1,313 men receiving the benefits of the home.

The board of commissioners consists of the general-in-chief commanding the army, the surgeon-general, the commissary-general, the adjutant-general, the quartermaster-general, the judge-advocate-general, and the governor of the home.

Applications for admission to the home may be addressed to the Board of Commissioners, Soldiers Home, War Department, Washington, D. C., and must give date of enlistment and date of discharge, with letter of company and number of regiment for each and every term of service, and rate of pension, if any, and must be accompanied by a medical certificate showing nature and degree of disability, if any exists.

Soley, JAMES RUSSELL, lawyer; born in Boston, Mass., Oct. 1, 1850; graduated at Harvard College in 1870, and later at the Law Department of Columbian University; was professor and head of the history department at the United States Naval Academy in 1872–82; was assistant Secretary of the Navy in 1890–93, when he began the practice of law in New York City; was counsel for Venezuela in the Venezuela-British Guiana Boundary arbitration at Paris, and lecturer on international law at the Naval War College, Newport, R. I. He is the author of *History of the Naval Academy; Foreign Systems of Naval Education; The Blockade and the Cruisers; Boys of 1812; Sailor Boys of 1861; Rescue of Greely* (with Winfield S. Schley); *Life of Admiral Porter*, etc. He died in New York City, Sept. 10, 1911.

Solid North, THE. Not the least of the difficulties which beset President Lincoln was an adverse sentiment in the North. With different degrees of intensity it extended from Maine to California. In his personal memoirs, General Grant says of his native town in Ohio that there was probably no time during the rebellion when it would not have voted for Jefferson Davis for President in preference to Mr. Lincoln.

The grounds of this sentiment were numerous. When the Southern States began seceding, Horace Greeley, who had long advocated the abolition of slavery, wrote, "Let the wayward sisters go." Many people in the North took him at his word and believed that they should be allowed to go. Some thought they would soon return. Some, brought up in the States' rights school of politics, believed that each State had a right to leave the Union at will. Some believed that, whatever the result, a great civil war could not be fought without overthrowing the democratic institutions and the liberties of the people of this country. Some believed that the abolition of slavery was the real object of the war and objected on that ground. They recognized the slaves as the rightful property of their owners, not to be taken from them by force; and also believed that the negroes were better off in slavery than they would be as freemen. Some had ties of blood, friendship, or business that led them to sympathize with the Southern people. Some objected to the shedding of blood and the creation of a vast debt. As American citizens, these people believed that they had a right to entertain such opinions and to express them.

The Administration took active steps to repress this sentiment. Newspapers were suspended or suppressed, among them the Chicago *Times*, the Philadelphia *Evening Journal*, the New York *World*, and the New York *Journal of Commerce*. The President also suspended the writ of *habeas corpus*, in accordance with Article I, Section 9, paragraph 2, of the Constitution of the United States. This was promptly decided by Chief-Justice Taney to be unlawful, but no heed was paid to the decision. Throughout the North men were arrested by military order, confined in military prisons, tried by military courts, and sentenced to punishments from fines to even death. Among these was Vallandigham, who was convicted of "disloyal utterances," and sentenced to close confinement in a fortress. All this was while the civil courts were in the uninterrupted discharge of their duties. This again was subsequently decided by the Supreme Court of the United States, in Milligan's case, to be without warrant of law and in violation of the Constitution. According to the records of the provost marshal's office, there were 38,000 military arrests during the war, a large proportion of them in the North.

Congress made it a penal offence to dis-

courage volunteering, so that if a friend advised a youth not to join the army, for whatever reason, he was subject to punishment. When volunteering ceased, an act was passed for compulsory military service, a thing familiar enough in Europe, but previously never practised in this country and always considered utterly abhorrent to republican institutions. When, during the War of 1812, it was proposed in Congress (but not passed) to fill the ranks of the army by conscription, the New England States held the Hartford Convention and all but raised the standard of rebellion, alleging this as one of their grounds of complaint. When the English people refused to enlist to fight against America, George III. hired Hessians to do the work. Many Americans citizens were compelled to fight in a war which they abhorred. General Hooker testified before a Congressional committee that a large element of the army had taken sides against the Emancipation Proclamation, declaring that if they had anticipated this they would never have gone into the war. Unused to enforced military service, in many places men refused to obey the call. This led to arrests, and this in turn to riots in New York, Brooklyn, Staten Island, Jersey City, Boston, and many other places. These were suppressed by the use of troops held in readiness for the purpose.

Solid South, The. The Confederate Congress having passed an act for making all residents loyal to the Confederate cause, President Davis issued a proclamation (Aug. 14, 1861) in accordance with the intent of that act. This and the confiscation act put the seal of silence upon the lips of all Union men. Few could leave, for obstacles were cast in their way. To remain was to acquiesce in the new order of things, or suffer intensely from social ostracism, if not from actual persecution. In east Tennessee, where the majority of the people were Unionists, fearful persecutions occurred at times. Unionists were imprisoned (see Brownlow, William Gannaway) and their property was plundered. Very soon the jails were filled with loyalists, and so completely were the people of that region under the control of armed Confederates that in November, 1861, Col. W. B. Wood, a Methodist clergyman from Alabama, holding a Confederate military commission, wrote to Judah P. Benjamin, Secretary of War, at Richmond: "The rebellion [resistance to Confederate rule] in east Tennessee has been put down in some of the counties, and will be effectually suppressed in less than two weeks." After speaking of breaking up the camps of the loyalists, he said, "It is a farce to arrest them and turn them over to the courts. . . . They really deserve the gallows, and, if consistent with the laws, ought speedily to receive their deserts." The gallows was sometimes used, and Union fugitives, driven from their homes, were hunted by blood-hounds in some parts of Tennessee.* On Nov. 20 Colonel Wood again wrote to Secretary Benjamin, and recommended the summary trial of "bridge-burners and spies." To this letter Benjamin replied (Nov. 25): "All such as can be identified as having been engaged in bridge-burning [to obstruct the march of Confederate raiders] are to be tried summarily by drum-head court-martial, and, if found guilty, executed on the spot, by hanging. It would be well to leave the bodies hanging in the vicinity of the burned bridges. . . . In no case is one of the men known to be up in arms against the government to be released on any pledge or oath of allegiance. The time for such measures is past. They are all to be held as prisoners of war, and held in jail to the end of the war." This spirit of the Confederate Secretary of War, manifested in all parts of the Confederate service at that time, produced a "solid South."

* The following advertisement appeared in the Memphis *Appeal:*

"Blood-hounds Wanted.—We, the undersigned, will pay $5 per pair for fifty pairs of well-bred hounds, and $50 for one pair of thoroughbred blood-hounds, that will take the track of a man. The purpose for which these dogs are wanted is to chase the infernal, cowardly Lincoln bushwhackers of east Tennessee and Kentucky who have taken advantage of the bush to kill and cripple many good soldiers to their haunts and capture them. The said hounds must be delivered at Captain Hammer's livery-stable by the 10th of December next, where a mustering-officer will be present to muster and inspect them.

"F. N. McNairy,
"H. H. Harris.

"Camp Comfort, Campbell Co., Tenn., *November 16.*"

Somers, RICHARD, naval officer; born at Somers Point, Great Egg Harbor, N. J., in 1778; joined the navy in 1798; was promoted lieutenant in May, 1799; commanded the *Nautilus*, with which he took part in the operations and blockade of Tripoli, in 1803–4. In the first engagement he also commanded a number of gunboats, and in one action fought five ships of the enemy at close quarters. During the second action, Aug. 4, 1804, he commanded three gunboats, and for three hours held in check a superior number; was promoted commander, Feb. 16, 1804. Towards the end of the war he planned the destruction of the Tripolitan squadron. The *Intrepid* was filled with about 15,000 pounds of powder and 200 loaded shell. This vessel was to be sailed into the midst of the enemy's fleet, and after a slow match was fixed to explode it the crew were to escape. On the night of Sept. 4, 1804, Somers, accompanied with twelve volunteers, embarked on the *Intrepid*, which was towed into the inner harbor by the brig *Siren*. The Tripolitan fleet opened fire upon the *Intrepid* as soon as she was sighted, but when she was 500 yards from the enemy she prematurely exploded, killing Commander Somers and all of the crew, and doing no injury to the enemy. This, however, with other events, led the enemy to dread the American navy, and Tripoli soon complied with the government's demands. A resolution of condolence was voted by Congress to the friends of those who had lost their lives, and a number of ships were named after Somers.

Somers, THE, an American brig-of-war of 266 tons' burden, and fitted to carry fourteen guns, but carrying ten, with a crew of officers, men, and boys of 120, under command of Alexander Slidell Mackenzie, cruising along the coast of Africa, left Liberia on Nov. 11, 1842, for the United States, *via* St. Thomas. On Nov. 25 Mackenzie received information through Lieutenant Gansevoort of a conspiracy on board to seize the brig and convert her into a pirate, etc. The leaders in this movement were reported to be Midshipman Philip Spencer, son of John C. Spencer, then Secretary of War, and Samuel Cromwell, the boatswain's mate, and a seaman, Elisha Small. Spencer was arrested on Nov. 27, and the other two on the 28th, and put in irons. These three were convicted by a court on board, and sentenced to be hanged at the yard-arm, the sentence being carried into effect on Dec. 1, 525 miles from St. Thomas. The *Somers* arrived at New York, Dec. 14, with several of the boys in confinement. A naval court of inquiry, convened on Dec. 28, consisting of Commodores Charles Stewart, Jacob Jones, Alexander J. Dallas, and Ogden Hoffman, judge advocate, sat until Jan. 19, 1843, and decided that Commodore Mackenzie had simply performed his duty, etc. This court and verdict did not satisfy public opinion, and for a further vindication Mackenzie called for a regular court-martial, which was held at the Brooklyn navy-yard, and by a vote of nine to three also acquitted him. An attempt was now made to bring the case before the circuit court of the United States, but Judge Betts, although no overt act had been committed, and the hanging had been done on mere suspicion, dismissed the case for want of jurisdiction. This case at the time created great excitement, many approving the course of Mackenzie, and many considering him guilty of a great crime. The *Somers* was lost in the harbor of Vera Cruz while blockading it, Dec. 8, 1846. See MACKENZIE, ALEXANDER SLIDELL.

Somers Isles, a name given to the Bermudas, in compliment to Sir George Somers, one of the commissioners for Virginia, who was wrecked there in 1609. These islands received their present name in honor of Juan Bermudez, a Spaniard, who was wrecked upon one of them in 1522. In 1614 the islands were settled under a charter given by King James and called Somers Isles. In 1640 a regular government was established there. Sir George Somers was sent there in 1610 by Lord Delaware for provisions; but, by tempests, the ship was driven northward and finally returned to Virginia. Thence he sailed again, and, after boisterous weather and great fatigue, reached the Bermudas, where he died in 1611. On the spot where he died the town of St George was built. His heart and entrails were buried in Bermuda and his body was sent to England. In 1620 the governor of Bermuda caused a large marble slab to

be laid over the portion of the remains buried there, upon which was cut an epitaph, written by himself, beginning:

"In the year 1611
Sir George Somers went to heaven;"

and concluding:

"At last, his soul and body having to part,
He here bequeathed his entrails and his heart."

Somerset Case, The. See Mansfield, William Murray, Lord: Slavery (1771).

Songs of the Civil War, Popular. The most familiar only are mentioned. A few of them, as the *Battle Flag of the Republic*, *Battle Hymn of the Republic*, *The Blue and the Gray*, and *Maryland, my Maryland*, have a place in standard literature; others, which will be recognized by all who remember the years of 1861–65, though with less literary merit, became favorites as expressions of patriotic sentiment.

Battle Cry of Freedom.—Geo. F. Root.

"Yes, we'll rally round the flag, boys."

Battle Flag of the Republic.—O. W. Holmes.

"Flag of the heroes who left us their glory."

Battle Hymn of the Republic.—Julia Ward Howe.

"Mine eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord."

The Blue and the Gray.—Francis M. Finch.

"By the flow of the inland river."

Brave Boys are They.—Henry C. Work.

"Brave boys are they, gone at their country's call."

Dixie (Southern).—Albert Pike.

"Southrons hear your country call you.'

Dixie (Northern).—T. M. Cooley.

"Away down South where grows the cotton."

John Brown's body—

"John Brown's body lies a-mould'ring in the grave."

Just before the Battle, Mother.—Geo. F. Root.

"Just before the battle, mother, I am thinking most of you."

Marching through Georgia.—Henry C. Work.

"Bring the good old bugle, boys; we'll sing another song."

Maryland, my Maryland (Southern).—Jos. R. Randall.

"The despot's heel is on thy shore, Maryland."

O wrap the flag around me, boys.—R. Stewart Taylor.

Tramp, Tramp, Tramp.—Geo. F. Root.

"In the prison cell I sit."

When Johnny comes Marching Home.—Louis Lambert.

When this Cruel War is Over.—Charles C. Sawyer.

"Dearest love, do you remember."

Sons of Liberty. At the period of Zenger's trial (1735) the radical opponents of the royal governors were called Sons of Liberty; but the name was not often heard until after the memorable speech in the House of Commons (1765) of Colonel Barré against the taxation of the Americans. In reply to Charles Townshend's assertion that the colonies had been cared for and nourished into strength by the indulgence of the British government, Barré scornfully denied it, saying that care was exercised in sending unfit persons as governors to rule over them—"men whose behavior on many occasions had caused the blood of those *sons of liberty* to recoil within them." The associated patriots in America instantly assumed this name. They were chiefly ardent young men, who loved excitement, but who were truly patriotic. They had, as a general rule, nothing to lose, let events turn as they might. Persons of consideration and influence, though they generally favored the acts of the Sons of Liberty, kept aloof from open coalition with them, for prudential motives; for the combination appeared dangerous. Their first business seemed to be the intimidation of stamp-distributers and to oppose the act in every way; but they finally, spreading widely over the colonies from Massachusetts to Georgia, became the most radical leaders in the quarrel with Great Britain and promoters of the Revolutionary War, in which many of them became distinguished leaders in the council and in the field.

Sons of the American Revolution. The National Society of "Sons of the American Revolution" was organized in

New York, April 30, 1889, and chartered in Connecticut in 1890. Its purposes are the same as those of the older organization, the "Sons of the Revolution." State societies exist in thirty-eight States, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii. A California society of descendants of Revolutionary patriots, entitled "Sons of Revolutionary Sires," organized July 4, 1875, having reorganized and changed its name in 1889, has been admitted to membership. A formal movement by this society and the "Sons of the Revolution" towards a union was attempted in 1892, and again in 1897, but was not successful. The total membership of the organization, according to the report of the registrar-general made at the annual congress of the general society held in 1910 was 12,500.

Sons of the Revolution. The society of the "Sons of the Revolution" was originated in New York in 1875 by John Austin Stevens, in conjunction with other patriotic gentlemen of Revolutionary ancestry. The New York society was instituted Feb. 22, 1876; reorganized Dec. 3, 1883, and incorporated May 3, 1884, to "keep alive among ourselves and our descendants the patriotic spirit of the men who, in military, naval, or civil service, by their acts or counsel, achieved American independence; to collect and secure for preservation the manuscript rolls, records, and other documents relating to the War of the Revolution, and to promote intercourse and good feeling among its members now and hereafter." Eligibility to membership is confined to male descendants, above the age of twenty-one years, from an ancestor who as either a military, naval, or marine officer, soldier, sailor, or marine, or official in the service of any one of the thirteen original colonies or States, or of the national government, representing or composed of those colonies or States, assisted in establishing American independence during the War of the Revolution between the 19th day of April, 1775, when hostilities commenced, and the 19th day of April, 1783, when they were ordered to cease. Membership (1910), 7,560.

Sons of Temperance, ORDER OF THE, was organized in the city of New York, Sept. 29, 1842. As a total-abstinence society it is composed of subordinate, grand, and national divisions. In the course of its existence it has had nearly five million members on its rolls. Its present membership in North America is 38,248, of whom 14,848 are in the United States.

Sons of Veterans, U. S. A. Camp No. 1, Sons of Veterans, U. S. A., was organized in Philadelphia, Sept. 29, 1879. The organization is composed of lineal descendants, over eighteen years of age, of honorably discharged soldiers, sailors, or marines who served in the late Civil War. There are now about 1,000 camps, with a membership of 50,000, distributed among twenty-five divisions, corresponding to States, the general society or national body constituting the commandery-in-chief. Each camp has its own officers, the head officer being the captain.

Sorosis, name of the first women's club in the United States, founded by Mrs. "Jenny June" Croly and some of her associates, in New York City, in 1868, to promote the social and educational interests of women, especially in art, science, and literature.

Soto, DE, FERNANDO. See DE SOTO, FERNANDO.

Soulé, PIERRE, statesman; born in Castillon, in the French Pyrenees, in September, 1802. His father was a lieutenant-general in the army of the French Republic. Pierre, destined for the Church, prepared by study at the Jesuits' college at Toulouse and at Bordeaux. Engaged in a conspiracy against the returned Bourbons (1816), the plot was discovered, and he lived more than a year in the guise of a shepherd. Permitted to return, he assisted in the establishment of a republican newspaper at Paris, for the utterances of which he was condemned to prison at St. Pélagie, but escaped to England, and thence went to Baltimore. In the fall of 1825 he went to New Orleans, where he became a very eminent lawyer; was elected to the United States Senate in 1847, where he served eight years, always taking ground in favor of the most extreme views on slavery and State supremacy. In 1853 President Pierce appointed him minister to Spain, where he soon became involved in a quarrel with M. Turgot, the French ambassador, whom he severely wounded in a duel. Having taken

a high-handed measure in reference to a treaty for reciprocity of trade between the United States and Cuba, he joined in the Ostend conference, and was one of the framers of the OSTEND MANIFESTO (*q. v.*). He returned to the United States in 1855, and in 1862 was arrested by General Butler for disloyalty to the government, and confined several months in Fort Lafayette, New York. He was released on condition that he should leave the country. He returned to New Orleans a few months before his death, March 14, 1870.

The following is the correspondence between the United States State Department and Messrs. Soulé, Mason, and Buchanan, resulting in the OSTEND MANIFESTO (*q. v.*):

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *Aug. 16, 1854.*

SIR,—I am directed by the President to suggest to you a particular step, from which he anticipates much advantage to the negotiations with which you are charged, on the subject of Cuba.

These and other considerations which will readily occur to you suggest that much may be done at London and Paris, either to promote directly the great object in view, or at least clear away impediments to its successful consummation.

Under these circumstances, it seems desirable that there should be a full and free interchange of views between yourself, Mr. Buchanan, and Mr. Mason, in order to secure a concurrence in reference to the general object.

The simplest and only very apparent means of attaining this end is for the three ministers to meet, as early as may be, at some convenient central point (say Paris), to consult together, to compare opinions as to what may be advisable, and to adopt measures for perfect concert of action in aid of your negotiations at Madrid. While the President has, as I have before had occasion to state, full confidence in your own intelligence and sagacity, he conceives that it cannot be otherwise than agreeable to you and to your colleagues in Great Britain and France to have the consultation suggested and then to bring your common wisdom and knowledge to bear simultaneously upon the negotiations at Madrid, London, and Paris.

If you concur in these views, you will please fix the time when you can repair to Paris, or such other convenient point as you may select, and give notice of it to Mr. Buchanan and Mr. Mason, who have instructions on the subject, and will await advices from you as to the time and place of the contemplated conference. In case the proposed interview shall take place, you are desired to communicate to the government here the results of opinion or means of action to which you may in common arrive, through a trustworthy, confidential messenger, who may be able to supply any details not contained in a formal despatch.

I am, sir, respectfully your obedient servant, W. L. MARCY.

Pierre Soulé, Esq., Madrid.

UNITED STATES LEGATION TO SPAIN,
LONDON, *Oct. 20, 1854.*

SIR,—Herewith I have the honor to transmit to you a joint communication from Mr. Buchanan, Mr. Mason, and myself, embodying the result of our deliberations on the subject about which we had been desired to confer together. The issues, with reference to which we were instructed to express our judgment, were of too momentous an import not to tax all the discernment and discretion in our power, and it was with a deep sense of solemn responsibility that we entered upon the duties which had been assigned to us.

May we have accomplished our task in a manner not unworthy of the great object for which it was conferred on us!

My colleagues have had a full view of the difficulties and dangers which the question presents: and you will see that they have not hesitated to join me in the expression of sentiments according strikingly with the intimations repeatedly thrown out in your despatches to me.

I do not know if we shall be found sufficiently explicit in the language through which we have attempted to convey our impressions; I trust, however, that it will be found sufficiently free from ambiguity to leave no room even for a doubt as to its true meaning.

The question of the acquisition of Cuba by us is gaining ground as it grows to

be more seriously agitated and considered. Now is the moment for us to be done with it; for if we delay its solution, we will certainly repent that we let escape the fairest opportunity we could ever be furnished with of bringing it to a decisive test.

Present indications would seem to encourage the hope that we may come to that solution peaceably. But if it were otherwise—if it is to bring upon us the calamity of a war—let it be now, while the great powers of this continent are engaged in that stupendous struggle, which cannot but engage all their strength and tax all their energies as long as it lasts, and may, before it ends, convulse them all.

Neither England nor France would be likely to interfere with us. England could not bear to be suddenly shut out of our market and see her manufacturers paralyzed even by a temporary suspension of her intercourse with us.

And France, with the heavy task now on her hands, and when she so eagerly aspires to take her seat as the acknowledged chief of the European family, would have no inducement to assume the burden of another war, nor any motive to repine at seeing that we took in our keeping the destinies of the New World, as she will soon have those of the Old.

I close this despatch in haste, as I have no time left me to carry it further.

Mr. McRae leaves for Liverpool within a few minutes. I intrust to him details which would not have found a place here, nor in the other despatch. He will impart to you what of my mind I am not able to pour out in these lines.

Respectfully yours,

PIERRE SOULE.

Hon. William L. Marcy, Secretary of State.

AIX LA CHAPELLE,
Oct. 18, 1857.

SIR,—The undersigned, in compliance with the wish expressed by the President in the several confidential despatches you have addressed to us respectively to that effect, have met in conference, first at Ostend, in Belgium, on the 9th, 10th, and 11th insts., and then at Aix la Chapelle, in Prussia, on the days next following, up to the date hereof.

There has been a full and unreserved interchange of views and sentiments between us, which, we are most happy to inform you, has resulted in a cordial coincidence of opinion on the grave and important subject submitted to our consideration.

We have arrived at the conclusion and are thoroughly convinced that an immediate and earnest effort ought to be made by the government of the United States to purchase Cuba from Spain at any price for which it can be obtained not exceeding the sum of $100,000,000. The proposal should, in our opinion, be made in such a manner as to be presented through the necessary diplomatic forms to the Supreme Constituent Cortes about to assemble. On this momentous question, in which the people both of Spain and the United States are so deeply interested, all our proceedings ought to be open, frank, and public. They should be of such a character as to challenge the approbation of the world.

We firmly believe that, in the progress of human events, the time has arrived when the vital interests of Spain are as seriously involved in the sale, as those of the United States in the purchase, of the island, and that the transaction would prove equally honorable to both nations.

Under these circumstances we cannot anticipate a failure, unless possibly through the malign influence of foreign powers, who possess no rights whatever to interfere in the matter.

We proceed to state some of the reasons which have brought us to this conclusion, and, for the sake of clearness, we shall specify them under two distinct heads:

1st. The United States ought, if practicable, to purchase Cuba with as little delay as possible.

2d. The probability is great that the government and Cortes of Spain will prove willing to sell it, because this would essentially promote the highest and best interests of the Spanish people.

The first, it must be clear to every reflecting mind, that, from the peculiarity of its geographical position, and the considerations attendant on it, Cuba is as necessary to the North American republic as any of its present members, and that it belongs naturally to the great family

of States of which the Union is the providential nursery. From its locality, it commands the mouth of the Mississippi, and the immense and annually increasing trade which must seek this avenue to the ocean.

On the numerous navigable streams, measuring an aggregate course of some 30,000 miles, which disembogue themselves through this magnificent river into the Gulf of Mexico, the increase of the population within the last ten years amounts to more than that of the entire Union at the time Louisiana was annexed to it.

The natural and main outlet to the products of this entire population, the highway of their direct intercourse with the Atlantic and the Pacific States, can never be secure, but must ever be endangered whilst Cuba is a dependency of a distant power, in whose possession it has proved to be a source of constant annoyance and embarrassment to their interests.

Indeed, the Union can never enjoy repose, nor possess reliable security, as long as Cuba is not embraced within its boundaries.

Its immediate acquisition by our government is of paramount importance, and we cannot doubt but that it is a consummation devoutly wished for by its inhabitants. The intercourse which its proximity to our coasts begets and encourages between them and the citizens of the United States, has, in the progress of time, so united their interests and blended their fortunes that they now look upon each other as if they were one people and had but one destiny.

Considerations exist which render delay in the acquisition of this island exceedingly dangerous to the United States. The system of immigration and labor lately organized within its limits, and the tyranny and oppression which characterize its immediate rulers, threaten an insurrection at every moment, which may result in direful consequences to the American people.

Cuba has thus become to us an unceasing danger, and a permanent cause of anxiety and alarm.

But we need not enlarge on these topics. It can scarcely be apprehended that foreign powers, in violation of international law, would interpose their influence with Spain to prevent our acquisition of the island. Its inhabitants are now suffering under the worst of all possible governments—that of absolute despotism, delegated by a distant power to irresponsible agents, who are changed at short intervals, and who are tempted to improve the brief opportunity thus afforded to accumulate fortunes by the basest means.

As long as this system shall endure, humanity may in vain demand the suppression of the African slave-trade in the island. This is rendered impossible whilst that infamous traffic remains an irresistible temptation and source of immense profit to needy and avaricious officials, who, to obtain their ends, scruple not to trample the most sacred principles under foot.

The Spanish government at home may be well disposed, but experience has proved that it cannot control these remote depositaries of its power. Besides, the commercial nations of the world cannot fail to perceive and appreciate the great advantages which would result to their people from a dissolution of the forced and unnatural connection between Spain and Cuba, and the annexation of the latter to the United States. The trade of England and France with Cuba would, in that event, assume at once an important and profitable character, and rapidly extend with the increasing population and prosperity of the island.

But if the United States and every commercial nation would be benefited by this transfer, the interests of Spain would also be greatly and essentially promoted. She cannot but see what such a sum of money as we are willing to pay for the island would effect in the development of her vast natural resources.

Two-thirds of this sum, if employed in the construction of a system of railroads, would ultimately prove a source of greater wealth to the Spanish people than that opened to their vision by Cortez. Their prosperity would date from the ratification of the treaty of cession.

France has already constructed continuous lines of railways from Havre, Marseilles, Valenciennes, and Strasbourg, *via* Paris, to the Spanish frontier, and anxiously awaits the day when Spain shall find herself in a condition to extend these roads through her northern provinces to Madrid, Seville, Cadiz, Malaga, and the

frontiers of Portugal. The object once accomplished, Spain would become a centre of attraction for the travelling world, and secure a permanent and profitable market for her various productions.

Her fields, under the stimulus given to industry by remunerating prices, would teem with cereal grain, and her vineyards would bring forth a vastly increased quantity of choice wines. Spain would speedily become, what a bountiful Providence intended she should be, one of the first nations of Continental Europe—rich, powerful, and contented. Whilst two-thirds of the price of the island would be ample for the completion of her most important public improvements, she might, with the remaining forty millions, satisfy the demands now pressing so heavily upon her credit, and create a sinking-fund which would gradually relieve her from the overwhelming debt now paralyzing her energies.

Such is her present wretched financial condition, that her best bonds are sold upon her own Bourse at about one-third of their par value; whilst another class, on which she pays no interest, have but a nominal value, and are quoted at about one-sixth of the amount for which they were issued. Besides, these latter are held principally by British creditors who may, from day to day, obtain the effective interposition of their own government for the purpose of coercing payment. Intimations to that effect have already been thrown out from high quarters, and unless some new source of revenue shall enable Spain to provide for such exigencies, it is not improbable that they may be realized. Should Spain reject the present golden opportunity for developing her resources, and removing her financial embarrassments, it may never again return. Cuba, in its palmiest day, never yielded her exchequer, after deducting the expenses of its government, a clear annual income of more than a million and a half of dollars. These expenses have increased in such a degree as to leave a deficit chargeable on the treasury of Spain to the amount of $600,000. In a pecuniary point of view, therefore, the island is an encumbrance, instead of a source of profit, to its mother-country.

Under no probable circumstances can Cuba ever yield to Spain 1 per cent. on the large amount which the United States are willing to pay for its acquisition. But Spain is in imminent danger of losing Cuba without remuneration.

Extreme oppression, it is now universally admitted, justifies any people in endeavoring to relieve themselves from the yoke of their oppressors. The sufferings which the corrupt, arbitrary and unrelenting local administration necessarily entails upon the inhabitants of Cuba, cannot fail to stimulate and keep alive that spirit of resistance and revolution against Spain which has, of late years, been so often manifested. In this condition of affairs it is vain to expect that the people of the United States will not be warmly enlisted in favor of their oppressed neighbors.

We know that the President is justly inflexible in his determination to execute the neutrality laws: but, should the Cubans themselves rise in revolt against the oppression which they suffer, no human power could prevent citizens of the United States and liberal-minded men from other countries from rushing to their assistance. Besides, the present is an age of adventure, in which restless and daring spirits abound in every portion of the world.

It is not improbable, therefore, that Cuba may be wrested from Spain by a successful revolution; and in that event she will lose both the island and price which we are now willing to pay for it—a price far beyond what was ever paid by one people to another for any province.

It may also be remembered that the settlement of this vexed question by the cession of Cuba to the United States would forever prevent the dangerous complications between nations, to which it might otherwise give birth.

It is certain that, should the Cubans themselves organize an insurrection against the Spanish government, and should other independent nations come to the aid of Spain in the contest, no human power could, in our opinion, prevent the people and government of the United States from taking part in such a civil war in support of their neighbor and friend. But if Spain, dead to the voice of her own interest, and actuated

by stubborn pride and a false sense of honor, should refuse to sell Cuba to the United States, then the question will arise, What ought to be the course of the American government under such circumstances? Self-preservation is the first law of nature, with States as well as with individuals. All nations have, at different periodicals, acted upon this maxim. Although it has been made the pretext for committing flagrant injustices, as in the partition of Poland and other similar cases which history records, yet the principle itself, though often abused, has always been recognized. The United States have never acquired a foot of territory except by fair purchase, or, as in the case of Texas, upon the free and voluntary application of the people of that independent State, who desired to blend their destinies with our own.

Even our acquisitions from Mexico are no exception to this rule, because, although we might have claimed them by the right of the conquest in a just war, yet we purchased them for what was considered by both parties a full and ample equivalent.

Our past history forbids that we should acquire the island of Cuba without the consent of Spain, unless justified by the great law of self-preservation. We must, in any event, preserve our own conscious rectitude and our own self-respect.

Whilst pursuing this course we can afford to disregard the censures of the world, to which we have been so often and so unjustly exposed. After we shall have offered Spain a price for Cuba far beyond its present value, and this shall have been refused, it will then be time to consider the question, Does Cuba, in the possession of Spain, seriously endanger our internal peace and the existence of our cherished Union?

Should this question be answered in the affirmative, then by every law, human and divine, we shall be justified in wresting it from Spain if we possess the power, and this upon the very same principle that would justify an individual in tearing down the burning house of his neighbor, if there were no other means of preventing the flames from destroying his own house.

Under such circumstances we ought neither to regard the circumstances or count the odds which Spain might enlist against us. We forbear to enter into the question, whether the present condition of the island would justify such a measure. We should, however, be recreant to our duty, be unworthy of our gallant forefathers, and commit base treason against our posterity, should we permit Cuba to be Africanized and become a second St. Domingo, with all its attendant horrors to the white race, and suffer the flames to extend to our own neighboring shores, seriously to endanger or actually to consume the fair fabric of our Union.

We fear that the course and current of events are rapidly tending to such a catastrophe. We, however, hope for the best, though we ought certainly to be prepared for the worst.

We also forbear to investigate the present condition of the questions at issue between the United States and Spain. A long series of injuries to our people has been committed in Cuba by Spanish officials, and are unredressed. But recently a most flagrant outrage on the rights of American citizens and on the flag of the United States was perpetrated in the harbor of Havana, under circumstances which, without immediate redress, would have justified a resort to measures of war in vindication of national honor. That outrage is not only unatoned, but the Spanish government has deliberately sanctioned the acts of its subordinates and assumed the responsibility attached to them. Nothing could more impressively teach us the danger to which those peaceful relations it has ever been the policy of the United States to cherish with foreign nations are constantly exposed than the circumstances of that case. Situated as Spain and the United States are, the latter have forborne to resort to the extreme measures.

But this course cannot, with due regard to their own dignity as an independent nation, continue; and our own recommendations, now submitted, are dictated by the firm belief that the cession of Cuba to the United States, with stipulations as beneficial to Spain as those suggested, is the only effective mode of settling all past differences and of securing the two countries against future collision.

We have already witnessed the happy results for both countries which followed a similar arrangement in regard to Florida.

Yours, very respectfully,

JAMES BUCHANAN,
J. Y. MASON,
PIERRE SOULÉ.

Hon. Wm. L. Marcy, Secretary of State.

Sound-Money Democrats. One of the branches into which the regular Democratic party split in 1896. In the National Democratic Convention in Chicago, July 7–11, the delegates from the New England and Middle States were almost solidly opposed to the free-silver movement, and became known as Gold Democrats or Sound-money Democrats. Under the leadership of ex-Governor David B. Hill, of New York, the sound-money delegates undertook to have the following declaration incorporated in the party platform, but the resolution to that end was rejected by a vote of 626 against 303:

"We declare our belief that the experiment on the part of the United States alone of free-silver coinage, and a change in the existing standard of value independently of the action of other great nations, would not only imperil our finances, but would retard or entirely prevent the establishment of international bimetallism, to which the efforts of the government should be steadily directed. It would place this country at once upon a silver basis, impair contracts, disturb business, diminish the purchasing power of the wages of labor, and inflict irreparable evils upon our nation's commerce and industry.

"Until international co-operation among leading nations for the coinage of silver can be secured, we favor the rigid maintenance of the existing gold standard as essential to the preservation of our national credit, the redemption of our public pledges, and the keeping inviolate of our country's honor. We insist that all our paper currency shall be kept at a parity with gold. The Democratic party is the party of hard money, and is opposed to legal-tender paper money as a part of our permanent financial system; and we therefore favor the gradual retirement and cancellation of all United States notes and treasury notes, under such legislative provisions as will prevent undue contraction. We demand that the national credit shall be resolutely maintained at all times and under all circumstances."

The convention ultimately endorsed the free-silver movement, and nominated William J. Bryan and Arthur Sewall. The Sound-money Democrats organized a national party, and in its convention nominated Gen. John M. Palmer, of Illinois, for President, and Gen. Simon B. Buckner, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. In the ensuing election the organized Sound-money Democrats polled 132,870 popular votes. There is no doubt but that a large number of other Democratic voters who favored the maintenance of sound-money standards voted for the Republican candidates on the national ticket, while supporting their own party candidates on State tickets.

South Bend, a city and county-seat of St. Joseph county, Ind. The old portage from the St. Joseph River to the headwaters of the Kankakee extended along what is now the northern part of the city, and was traversed by Indians for years beyond record. In 1679 La Salle, while on his exploring voyage to the Mississippi, made a landing here, and was so pleased with the spot and its surroundings that thereafter he frequently camped here. At the time of his first landing the place was the site of a considerable village of the Miami Indians, and in later years a large band of Pottawattomies lived here. The first regular settlement by the whites was made by a French colony in 1820; the place was incorporated as a town in 1835, and received a city charter in 1865. Pop. (1910), 53,484.

SOUTH CAROLINA

South Carolina (named first in honor of King Charles IX., of France, and later for King Charles II., of England), a State in the South Atlantic Division of the North American Union; one of the original thirteen and the eighth to ratify the federal Constitution; bounded on the n. and n. e. by North Carolina, s. e. by the

Atlantic Ocean, and s. w. by Georgia; area, 30,989 square miles, of which 494 are water surface; extreme breadth, e. to w., 235 miles; extreme length, n. to s., 215 miles; number of counties, 43; capital, Columbia; popular name, "the Palmetto State"; State mottoes (1) *Animis opibusque parati*, "Prepared in mind and resource; ready to give life and property"; (2) *Dum spiro, spero. Speo*, "While I breathe I hope. Hope." Ratified the federal Constitution, May 23, 1788; seceded, Dec. 20, 1860; readmitted into the Union, June 25, 1868. Pop. (1910), 1,515,400.

General Statistics.—South Carolina is especially noted for its long and eventful history and for its varied cotton interests. There are over 176,180 farms, comprising 6,085,000 improved acres, and representing a value in lands, buildings, and implements over $345,900,000, an increase in value of lands and buildings in ten years of 162 per cent. Ordinary farm crops have a value of nearly $50,200,000, corn ($36,681,000), wheat, and oats leading. The highest single-year production in the cotton-growing industry (1910) showed 1,240,540 bales of fiber, valued at $82,520,000, and 518,000 long tons of seed, valued at $16,110,000, making the total value of this crop $95,630,000. Domestic animals, poultry, and bees have a value of $45,031,088, an increase in ten years of 122 per cent. In the State's record year in mineral productions (1906) the entire output was valued at $2,800,108, clay products ($830,481), phosphate rock ($817,068), mineral waters ($348,744), and stone ($258,938) leading. The State owns valuable deposits of phosphate rock, but its revenue from that source has fallen from $237,149 in 1890 to $1,500 in 1910, largely due to a reduction in royalties.

Manufacturing industries are represented by 1,854 factory-eystem establishments, employing $173,221,000 capital and 73,046 wage-earners; paying $24,117,000 for salaries and wages and $66,013,000 for materials; and yielding products valued at $113,-236,000. These figures show an increase in ten years, in capital, from $62,750,027; wage-earners from 47,025; cost of materials from $30,485,861; and value of products from $53,335,811. The most important industries are the manufacture of cotton goods, lumber and timber milling, cotton-seed oil and cake milling, fertilizers; and steam-railroad-car construction. In the period of 1870–1905 the capital invested in the cotton-mills increased from $1,337,000 to $82,337,429, number of wage-earners from 1,123 to 37,271, and the value of products from $1,529,937 to $49,437,644. The share of the State in the commerce of the country in the year ending June 30, 1911, was $15,196,621, at the ports of Beaufort, Charleston, and Georgetown, more than one-half being exports of local products.

General business interests are served by thirty-nine national banks, having $3,985,-000 capital and resources of $33,810,227; 223 State banks, with $8,474,949 capital and $45,735,801 resources; five loan and trust companies, with $305,000 capital, $2,275,547 resources; and twenty-five stock savings-banks, with $1,169,168 capital and $12,983,323 resources. The exchanges at the clearing-house at Charleston have exceeded $87,882,700 in a single year.

Religious interests are promoted by 5,385 organizations of white congregations, having 5,290 church edifices, 665,-933 communicants or members, 328,829 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $10,209,043, the strongest denominations being the Baptist, Methodist Episcopal, Presbyterian, Lutheran, Roman Catholic, and Protestant Episcopal. Colored congregations have 3,048 organizations, 2,853 churches, 349,149 members, and church property valued at $3,366,223, the strongest denominations being the Baptist, Methodist Episcopal, Presbyterian, and Reformed Episcopal. The Roman Catholic and African Methodist Episcopal Churches have each a bishop at Charleston, and the Protestant Episcopal one at Columbia.

The estimated number of children 5 to 18 years of age in the State is 517,875; enrollment in the public schools, whites, 156,051, colored, 184,364; average daily attendance, whites, 114,731, colored, 129,-170; value of public-school property, $2,-500,000; total revenue, $1,933,620; total expenditure, $1,905,236; estimated number of pupils in private and parochial schools, 10,000. For the higher education of men and both sexes there are twelve

universities and colleges; for women only, eight colleges. There are also five schools of theology, one each of law, medicine, and pharmacy, two public and three private normal schools, three manual and industrial-training schools, and nineteen colleges for the colored race. The State maintains an Institution for the Deaf and Blind at Cedar Spring. The leading educational institutions are the University of South Carolina, at Columbia; South Carolina Military Academy, Charleston; College of Charleston; Clemson Agricultural College (State), Clemson College Station; Presbyterian College of South Carolina, Clinton; Benedict College (Bapt.), Columbia; Claflin University (M. E.), Orangeburg; Newberry College (Luth.); Furman University (Bapt.), Greenville; Wofford College (M. E. S.), Spartanburg; and colleges for women, mostly sectarian, at Columbia, Due West, Greenville, Greenwood, Spartanburg, and Union. The higher institutions for the colored race are mostly industrial and normal schools and sectarian in control. An interesting feature of the Clemson Agricultural College work is a newly established extension scheme, with a rural school agriculturist who spends his time in field work.

Government.—A convention at Columbia framed the first constitution of the State in 1790; another revised the constitution, which went into effect without being submitted to the people for ratification, in 1861; a third repealed the ordinance of secession and framed an amended constitution, which also went into effect without popular ratification, in 1865; a fourth, assembled under the Reconstruction Act of Congress, framed another constitution, which received popular ratification, in 1868; and a fifth made further constitutional changes in 1895. Between these dates, as well as after the last one, various alterations were made by amendments. The Thirteenth Amendment to the federal Constitution was accepted in 1865; the Fourteenth, rejected in 1866; and the Fifteenth, ratified in 1869.

The executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary, $3,500), lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, treasurer, attorney-general, adjutant-general, comptroller-general, superintendent of education, and commissioners of agriculture and insurance—official terms, unless otherwise specified, two years. The legislature consists of a senate of forty-three members and a house of representatives of 124 members—terms of each, two years; salary of each, $200 per annum; sessions, annual; limit, none, but members draw pay for forty days only. The chief judicial authority is a Supreme Court, comprising a chief-justice and three associate justices. In 1911 the recognized bonded debt was $6,528,885, exclusive of $165,358 bonds long ago matured, but never paid; sinking funds, $826,765; assessed valuations for 1910, $279,755,349; tax rate, $5.75 per $1,000. In 1904 the United States Supreme Court upheld the decision of the United States Circuit Court that the revenue bond scrip of the State was void. Under the act of March 2, 1872, $1,800,000 of this scrip had been issued. In 1907 the State Supreme Court upheld the validity of certain bonds alleged to have been stolen from the State treasurer's office, and in 1910 the legislature provided for an issue of bonds and certificates to redeem them.

PROPRIETARY GOVERNORS.

William Sayle	appointed	July 26,	1669
Joseph West	"	Aug. 28,	1671
Sir John Yeamans	"	Dec. 26,	1671
Joseph West	"	Aug. 13,	1674
Joseph Morton	"	Sept. 26,	1682
Joseph West	"	Sept. 6,	1684
Richard Kirk			1684
Robert Quarry			1684
Joseph Morton			1685
James Colleton			1686
Seth Sothel			1690
Philip Ludwell			1692
Thomas Smith			1693
Joseph Blake			1694
John Archdale			1695
Joseph Blake			1696
James Moore			1700
Sir Nathaniel Johnson			1703
Edward Tynte			1709
Robert Gibbes			1710
Charles Craven			1712
Robert Daniel			1716
Robert Johnson			1717
James Moore			1719

ROYAL GOVERNORS.

Arthur Middleton	1719
Francis Nicholson	1721
Arthur Middleton	1725
Robert Johnson	1730
Thomas Broughton	1735
William Bull	1737
James Glen	1743
William H. Littleton	1756
William Bull	1760
Thomas Boone	1762
William Bull	1763
Charles Montague	1766
William Bull	1769
William Campbell	1775

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

John Rutledge	1775
Rawlin Lowndes	1778
John Rutledge	1779
John Matthews	1782
Benjamin Guerard	1783
William Moultrie	1785
Thomas Pinckney	1787
Arnoldus Vanderhorst	1792
William Moultrie	1794
Charles Pinckney	1796
Edward Rutledge	1798
John Drayton.....acting	1800
James B. Richardson	1802
Paul Hamilton	1804
Charles Pinckney	1806
John Drayton	1808
Henry Middleton	1810
Joseph Alston	1812
David R. Williams	1814
Andrew J. Pickens	1816
John Geddes	1818
Thomas Bennet	1820
John L. Wilson	1822
Richard J. Manning	1824
John Taylor	1826
Stephen D. Miller	1828
James Hamilton	1830
Robert Y. Hayne	1832
George McDuffie	1834
Pierce M. Butler	1836
Patrick Noble	1838
B. K. Hennegan....acting	1840
J. P. Richardson	1840
James H. Hammond	1842
William Aiken	1844
David Johnson	1846
W. B. Seabrook	1848
John H. Means	1850
John L. Manning	1852
James H. Adams	1854
R. F. W. Alston	1856
William H. Gist	1858
Francis W. Pickens	1860
M. L. Bonham	1862
A. G. Magrath.....inaugurated....Dec. 19,	1864
Benj. F. Perry, provisional, appointed June 30,	1865
James L. Orr.....inaugurated....Nov. 29,	1865
Robert K. Scott.....inaugurated....July 9,	1868
F. J. Moses, Jr.	1873
Daniel H. Chamberlain	1875
Wade Hampton	1877
William D. Simpson..assumes office..Feb. 26,	1879
T. B. Jeter.....assumes office..Sept. 1,	1880
Johnson Hagood....inaugurated..Nov. 30,	1880
Hugh S. Thompson	1882
John P. Richardson	1886
Benjamin R. Tillman..inaugurated..Dec. 4,	1890
John Gary Evans.....Dec. 1,	1894
William H. Ellerbe	1897
Miles B. McSweeney	1899
Duncan C. Heyward	1903
Martin F. Ansel	1907
Coleman L. Blease	1911

South Carolina ranked seventh in population among the States and Territories under the census of 1790; sixth in 1800 and 1810; eighth in 1820; ninth in 1830; eleventh in 1840; fourteenth in 1850; eighteenth in 1860; twenty-second in 1870; twenty-first in 1880; twenty-third in 1890; twenty-fourth in 1900; and twenty-sixth in 1910.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Cong.	Term.
Pierce Butler	1st to 4th	1789 to 1796
Ralph Izard	1st " 4th	1789 " 1795
Jacob Read	4th " 7th	1795 " 1801
John Hunter	4th " 5th	1796 " 1798
Charles Pinckney	5th " 7th	1798 " 1801
Thomas Sumter	7th " 11th	1801 " 1810
John Ewing Calhoun	7th	1801 " 1802
Pierce Butler	8th	1803 " 1804
John Gailard	8th to 20th	1805 " 1826
John Taylor	11th " 14th	1810 " 1816
William Smith	14th " 18th	1817 " 1823
Robert Y. Hayne	18th " 22d	1823 " 1832
William Harper	19th	1826
William Smith	20th to 22d	1826 to 1831
Stephen D. Miller	22d	1831 " 1833
John C. Calhoun	22d to 28th	1833 " 1843
William C. Preston	23d " 27th	1833 " 1842
George McDuffie	27th	1843 " 1846
Daniel E. Huger	28th	1843 " 1845
John C. Calhoun	29th to 31st	1845 " 1850
Andrew P. Butler	29th " 35th	1846 " 1857
Franklin H. Elmore	31st	1850
Robert W. Barnwell	31st	1850
R. Barnwell Rhett	31st to 32d	1851 to 1852
William F. DeSaussure	32d	1852
Josiah J. Evans	33d to 35th	1853 to 1858
Arthur P. Hayne	35th	1858
James H. Hammond	35th to 36th	1857 to 1860
James Chestnut	35th " 36th	1859 " 1860
37th, 38th, 39th Congresses vacant.		
Thomas J. Robertson	40th to 45th	1868 to 1877
Frederick A. Sawyer	40th " 43d	1868 " 1873
John J. Patterson	43d " 46th	1873 " 1879
Matthew C. Butler	45th " 54th	1877 " 1895
Wade Hampton	46th " 52d	1879 " 1891
John L. M. Irby	52d " 55th	1891 " 1897
B. R. Tillman	54th " ——	1895 " ——
John L. McLaurin	54th " 57th	1897 " 1903
Asbury C. Latimer	58th " 61st	1903 " 1908
Ellison D. Smith	61st " ——	1909 " ——

In the apportionment of representation in Congress, South Carolina was given five members under the Constitution and the census of 1870; six in 1790 and 1850; eight in 1800; nine in 1810, 1820, and 1830; seven in 1840, 1880, 1890, 1900, and 1910; and four in 1860.

History: Early Period.—It is supposed by some that Verazzano visited the coast of the present State in 1524. D'Allyon was there in 1520 (see AMERICA, DISCOVERERS OF); but the first attempt to colonize that region was made by John Ribault, at the head of some Huguenots, in 1562. After discoveries in Florida, Ribault landed and erected a fort on an island in Port Royal harbor, to which he gave the name Carolina in honor of Charles IX. of France. This settlement was short-lived, and no further attempts were made to colonize for more than 100 years.

SETTLERS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

The region was granted to eight of the favorites of Charles II., in 1663, and in 1670 they sent three ships with emigrants, under the direction of Sir William Sayle and Joseph West, to plant a colony below Cape Fear. They entered Port Royal Sound, landed on Beaufort Island, on the spot where the Huguenots had dwelt, and there Sayle died, in 1671. The immigrants soon afterwards abandoned Beaufort, entered Charleston Harbor, went up the Ashley River, and seated themselves on its banks, a few miles above the site of Charleston. West exercised the authority of chief magistrate until the arrival of Gov. Sir John Yeamans, in December, 1671, with fifty families and a large number of slaves from Barbadoes. The next year representative government was established, under the title of the Carteret County Colony—so called in honor of Sir George Carteret. Ten years afterwards the colony removed to Oyster Point, at the junction of the Ashley and Cooper rivers, and there the city of Charleston was founded.

Very soon some Dutch families, dissatisfied with English rule at New York, went to South Carolina, and planted themselves along the Edisto and Santee rivers. Like the settlers in North Carolina, those of the Southern colony refused to be governed by the constitution framed by Shaftesbury and Locke. Political and religious quarrels distracted the colony a long time, and finally the coast Indians made raids upon them, plundering the plantations of grain and cattle, and menacing the inhabitants. They were subdued in 1680. In 1690 a large number of Huguenots, or French Protestants, settled in the colony, and afterwards a considerable number of Swiss, Irish, and German emigrants made their way to South Carolina. The people were often in opposition to the proprietary rulers. They broke into open rebellion, and, in 1690, the popular Assembly impeached and banished Gov. John Colleton. While this turbulence prevailed, Seth Sothel arrived, pursuant to his sentence of banishment from North Carolina, and the people unanimously chose him for governor. For two years he plundered and oppressed them, when he, too, was deposed and banished. Philip Ludwell came to re-establish the authority of the proprietors, but the people, thoroughly aroused, resolved not to tolerate even so good a man as he. He tried to enforce the fundamental constitution, but soon gladly withdrew from the turbulent community. The good Quaker, John Archdale, came in 1695 as governor, and by his mild republican rule made the people happy. In 1702 Governor Moore led an expedition against the Spaniards at St. Augustine. It was

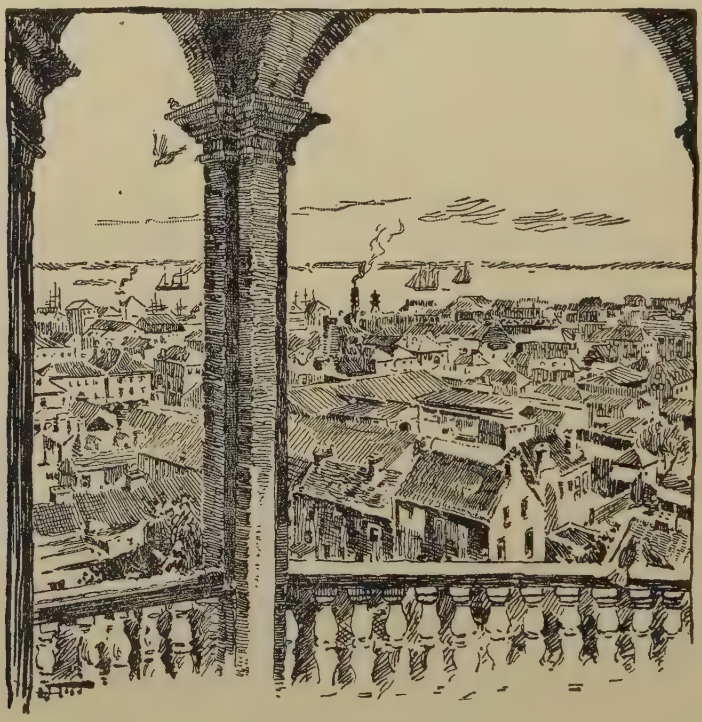
unsuccessful, and burdened the colony with a debt of more than $26,000, for the payment of which they issued bills of credit for the first time.

Before the settlement of Georgia was begun, below the Savannah River, the South Carolinians were often annoyed by Indian depredations incited by the Spaniards in Florida. In 1703 the Apalachian Indians, in league with the Spaniards, were attacked by Governor Moore and a body of white men and Indians. Their chief village was desolated; nearly 800 of the Apalachians were made prisoners, and their whole territory was made tributary to the white people. A few years later a secret general Indian confederacy was formed to exterminate the white people by a single blow. Within forty days, in the spring of 1715, the Indian tribes from the Cape Fear to the St. Mary and back to the mountains had coalesced in the conspiracy, and before the people of Charleston had any intimation of danger, 100 white victims had been slain in the remote settlements. The Creeks, Yamasees, and Apalachians in the South had confederated with the Cherokees, Catawbas, and Congarees in the West, in all about 6,000 strong, while more than 1,000 warriors issued from the Neuse region to avenge their misfortunes in the war of 1712–13. The people were filled with terror. Governor Craven acted with the utmost wisdom and energy. He declared the province to be under martial law, and at the head of 1,200 men, black and white, he marched to meet the foe. The Indians were at first victorious, but after several bloody encounters the Southern warriors were driven across the Savannah River (May, 1715), and halted not until they found refuge under the Spanish guns at St. Augustine. The Cherokees and their northern neighbors had not yet engaged in the war, and they wearily returned to their hunting-grounds, deeply impressed with a sense of the greatness and strength of the white people.

The first part of this excitement had just passed by, when the proprietors attempted to establish the Anglican Church ritual as the state method of worship in South Carolina. In 1704 the Provincial Assembly of South Carolina passed an act for the establishment of the Church of England as the legal Church of the colony, and requiring all public officers to conform to its doctrine and ritual. The province was divided into ten parishes, lands were granted for glebes and churchyards, and salaries, payable from the provincial treasury, were fixed and appointed for the rectors. The regulation included the French settlements on the

FIG-GROWING IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

Santee and the Dutch settlement on the Ashley. Several churches were soon afterwards built. A commission was appointed for the displacing of rectors and ministers of the churches. A portion of the acts establishing the Anglican Church in South Carolina were disapproved by some of the proprietors as well as by the people. These acts were referred to the lords of trade and plantations, and sustained by the crown, and in 1729 the King of England bought the two Carolinas for $80,000, and they became separate royal provinces. From that time until the French and Indian War the general history of the Carolinas presented nothing very remarkable, excepting their brave efforts for defending the colonies against the Indians and Spaniards. The South Carolinians warmly sympathized with the



A BIT OF CHARLESTON, S. C.

were declared void by the Queen in 1705, but the Church party remained dominant.

French and Spanish war-vessels entered Charleston Harbor with troops, to capture the province and annex it to the Spanish domain of Florida; but they were repulsed with great loss. The proprietors appearing indifferent to the sufferings of the colonists, the people arose in their might in 1719, deposed the proprietary governor, and appointed Colonel Moore governor of the colony. This course was patriotic movements in the North preceding the Revolutionary War. The royal governor (Lord Campbell) abdicated the government, and took refuge on board a British war-vessel, in September, 1775, when the government was administered by a provincial council. During the war the severe battles of Fort Moultrie, Charleston, Camden, King's Mountain, Cowpens, and Eutaw Springs were fought in South Carolina. Great agitation existed from 1828 to 1833, there being strong op-

position to the high tariff upon importations imposed by the national government. Immediately after the Presidential election in 1832, a State convention met (November), and adopted unanimously a "nullification ordinance" (see JACKSON, ANDREW; NULLIFICATION), which pronounced the tariff "null, void, and no law, nor binding on this State, its officers and citizens," and prohibited the payment of duties on imports imposed by that law within the State after Feb. 1, 1833. It was declared that no appeal in the matter should be made to the Supreme Court of the United States against the validity of an act of the legislature to that effect, and that, should the national government attempt to enforce the law thus nullified, or interfere with the foreign commerce of the State, the people of South Carolina would "hold themselves absolved from all further obligations to maintain or preserve their political connection with the people of the other States."

This was an assertion of the doctrine of State supremacy pure and simple. It was approved by the governor, ROBERT Y. HAYNE (*q.v.*) in his message to the legislature, and that body took measures to give practical effect to the ordinance. President Jackson met the vital issue boldly and promptly, in a proclamation which made the nullifiers pause; and, during the ensuing session of Congress, a compromise tariff was passed, which allayed feeling and postponed civil war.

A more fatal political excitement began in South Carolina in 1860, when Abraham Lincoln was elected President. On the day of his election the legislature assembled at Columbia, when joint resolutions of both Houses providing for a State convention to consider the withdrawal of the State from the Union were offered. Some of the more cautious members counselled delay, and to wait for the co-operation of other States, but this advice was condemned by more zealous members. "If we wait for co-operation," said one of them, "slavery and State rights will be abandoned; State sovereignty and the cause of the South lost forever." James Chestnut, then a member of the United States Senate, recommended immediate secession; and W. W. Boyce, a member of the national House of Representatives, said, "I think the only policy for us is to arm as soon as we receive authentic intelligence of the election of Lincoln. It is for South Carolina, in the quickest manner and by the most direct means, to withdraw from the

STATE SEAL OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

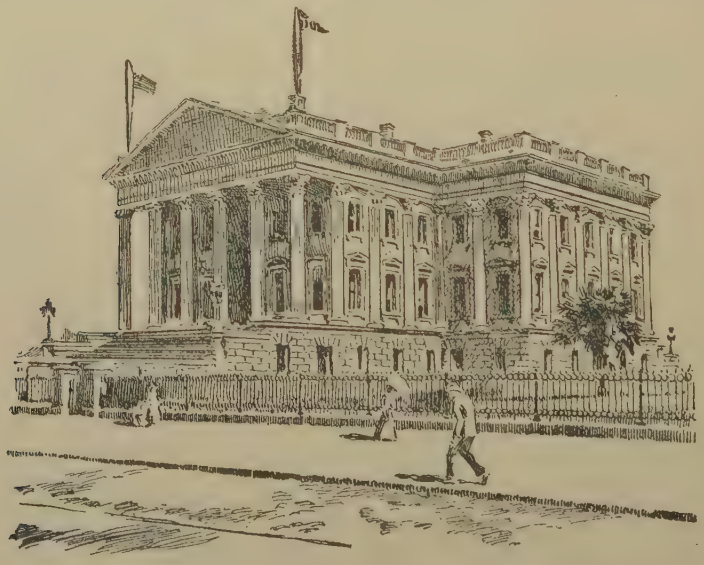
Union." In the course of the debate the fact came out that emissaries had already been sent from the Southern States to Europe to prepare the way for aid and recognition of the contemplated Southern Confederacy by foreign governments; and that France had made propositions for the arrangement of such relations between that country and the government about to be established in South Carolina as would insure to the former such a supply of cotton for the future as its increasing demand for that article would require.

On Nov. 12 the legislature passed an act authorizing a State convention. That legislature also declared that a "sovereign State of the Union had a right to secede from it; that the States of the Union are not subordinate to the national government, were not created by it, and do not belong to it; that *they* created the national government; that from them it derives its powers; that to them it is responsible; and that when it abuses the trust reposed in it they, as equal sovereigns, have a right to resume the powers respectively delegated to it by them." As soon as the legislature had authorized the convention, orators of every grade went out to harangue the people in all parts of

the State. Every speech was burdened with complaints of "wrongs suffered by South Carolina in the Union." The organ of the Confederates in Charleston called upon all natives of South Carolina in the army and navy to resign their commissions and join in the movement. "The mother looks to her sons to protect her from outrage," said this fiery newspaper (the Charleston *Mercury*); "she is sick of the Union—disgusted with it upon any terms within the range of the widest possibility." This was responded to by the resignation of many South Carolinians; and the leaders in the movement declared that "not a son of that State would prove loyal to the old flag." They commended the course of Lieut. J. R. Hamilton, a South Carolinian and member of the United States navy, who issued a circular letter to his "fellow-Southerners" in the marine service, expatiating much upon honor, and saying, "What the South asks of you now is to *bring with you every ship and man you can*, that we may use them against the oppressors of our liberties and the enemies of our aggravated but united people."

Vigilance committees were organized to discover and suppress every opposition sentiment and movement in South Carolina. These committees, clothed with power, were called "guardians of Southern rights." Their officers possessed full authority to decide all questions brought before them, and their decision was "final and conclusive." Their patrols were authorized to arrest and bring before the committees all suspected white men, and to suppress all gatherings of negroes. It was under such circumstances that the election of members of the convention was held, and the Charleston *Mercury* was enabled to say to the officers of the army and navy natives of that State it was calling home, "You need have no more doubt of South Carolina's going out of the Union than of the world's turning round. *Every man that goes to the convention will be a pledged man*—pledged for immediate separate State secession in any event whatever." This promise was uttered before the members of the convention had been chosen. They were chosen Dec. 3, 1860.

They met at Columbia on the 17th, and chose David F. Jamison president. The great prevalence of small-pox there caused the delegates to adjourn to Charleston, where they proceeded at once to business.



THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, CHARLESTON, S. C.

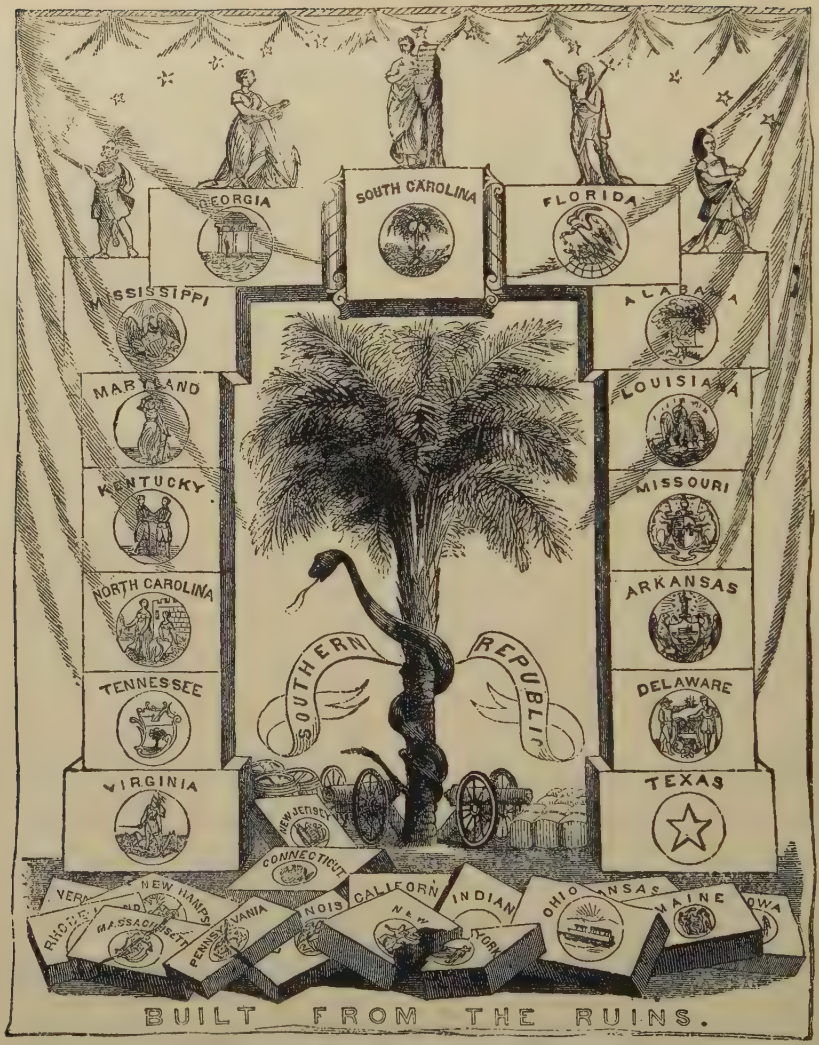
They chose several committees, one of which was to draft an ordinance of secession. J. A. Inglis was chairman of that committee, and on Dec. 20 reported the

DAVID F. JAMISON.

following ordinance: "We, the people of the State of South Carolina, in convention assembled, do declare and ordain, and it is hereby declared and ordained, that the ordinance adopted by us in convention on the 23d day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight, whereby the Constitution of the United States was ratified, and also all acts and parts of acts of the General Assembly of the State ratifying amendments of the said Constitution, are hereby repealed, and the union now subsisting between South Carolina and other States under the name of the United States of America is hereby dissolved." This ordinance had been framed by Robert B. Rhett some time before, and the committee to report it had been selected with Mr. Inglis at its head. The ordinance, reported at noon, Dec. 20, 1860, was adopted just forty-five minutes after it was submitted to the convention. There was no debate, for every delegate was pledged to vote for it.

The 169 members of the convention were then assembled in St. Andrew's Hall, and it was agreed that at seven o'clock in the evening they should go in procession to Institute Hall and sign "the great act of deliverance and liberty." When the convention adjourned for dinner at 4 P.M. and went in regular procession from St. Andrew's Hall, they were cheered by the populace, and the chimes of St. Michael's Church pealed forth *Auld Lang Syne* and other airs. At seven o'clock they reassembled in the hall of the institute for the purpose of signing the ordinance. It had been engrossed on parchment, twenty-five by thirty-three inches in size, with the great seal of South Carolina attached. The governor and his council and both branches of the legislature were present, and the hall was densely crowded with men and women of Charleston. Back of the president's chair was suspended a banner, composed of cotton cloth, with devices painted in water colors by a Charleston artist named Alexander. The base of the design was a mass of broken and disordered blocks of stone, on each of which were the name and arms of a free-labor State. Rising from this mass were two columns of perfect and symmetrical blocks of stone, connected by an arch of the same material, on each of which, fifteen in number, were seen the name and coat of arms of a slave-labor State. South Carolina formed the keystone of the arch, on which stood a statue of Calhoun leaning upon a trunk of a palmetto-tree, and holding a scroll bearing the words "Truth, Justice, and the Constitution." On each side of the statue were allegorical figures of Faith and Hope. Beyond each of these was a North American Indian with a rifle. In the space formed by the two columns and the arch was the device of the seal and flag of South Carolina—a palmetto-tree, with a rattlesnake coiled around its trunk, and at its base a park of cannon and some emblems of State commerce. On a ribbon fluttering from the body of the tree were the words "Southern Republic." Over the whole design were fifteen stars in the segment of a circle. Underneath all, in large letters, were the words "Built from the Ruins."

On each side of the platform on which the president sat was a real palmetto-tree. After the signature of every member of the convention was affixed to the ordinance the venerable Rev. Dr. Bachman advanced to the front of the platform and uttered a petition to Almighty God for his blessing and favor on the act. Then the president stepped forward, read and



BANNER OF THE SOUTH CAROLINA SECESSION CONVENTION.

exhibited the instrument to the people, and said, "The ordinance of secession has been signed, and I proclaim the State of South Carolina an independent commonwealth" (see SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY for full text of the ordinance). As soon as the proclamation was made the civil officers resigned their places under the government of the United States. Judge McGrath, of the United States district court at Charleston, said to the grand-jurors in his court, "For the last time, I have, as a judge of the United States, administered the laws of the United States within the limits of South Carolina. So far as I am concerned, the temple of justice raised under the Constitution of the United States is now closed." Then, with solemn gravity, he laid aside his gown and retired. At the same time the United States district attorney, the collector of the port of Charleston, and the national sub-treas-

urer resigned, and were followed by all the civil officers of the State.

On the day when the ordinance of secession was passed, the convention adopted a new banner for the "independent commonwealth." It was composed of red and blue silk, the former being the ground of the standard, and the latter, in the form of a cross, bearing fifteen stars. The larger star was for South Carolina. In one upper corner was a white crescent moon, and in the other a palmetto-tree. A small medal was also struck to commemorate the event.

On Dec. 21, 1860, the South Carolina convention appointed Robert W. Barnwell, James H. Adams, and James L. Orr

SOUTH CAROLINA FLAG.

commissioners to proceed to Washington to treat for the possession of the public property within the limits of their State. They arrived in Washington Dec. 26, and the day after their arrival they heard of the movement of Maj. Robert Anderson (*q. v.*). On the 28th they addressed a formal diplomatic letter to the President, drawn up by Mr. Orr, informing him of their official authority to treat for the delivery, by the United States, of all forts and other public property in South Carolina to the authorities of that "sovereign State." They also furnished him with a copy of the ordinance of secession. They urged the President to immediately withdraw all the National troops from Charleston Harbor, because they were a "standing

SOUTH CAROLINA MEDAL.

menace." The President was highly offended by the arrogance of the commissioners, acting under the peculiar circumstances of the case, and the best friends of the country urged him to arrest them; but, soothed by his fears, he replied to them courteously (Dec. 30), and expressed a willingness to lay before Congress any proposition they might make. To recognize their State as a foreign power would be usurpation on his part, and he should refer the whole matter to Congress. He denied ever having made any agreement with members of Congress from South Carolina to withhold reinforcements from the forts at Charleston, or any pledge to do so, which William Porcher Miles asserted had been done. He alluded to the seizure of the arsenal at Charleston, and gave them to understand that he should defend Fort Sumter. Two days later the commissioners replied

A COLONIAL GATE, CHARLESTON, S. C.

to this, in a long and extremely insulting letter, in which they charged the President with perfidy and taunted him with dereliction of duty. The President made no reply, but returned the letter to the commissioners endorsed—"This paper, just presented to the President, is of such a character that he declines to receive it." See BUCHANAN, JAMES.

In April, 1861, citizens of South Carolina attacked Fort Sumter, and compelled its evacuation by national troops, and for about four years afterwards kept up a warfare upon the life of the republic. At the close of the war a provisional governor was appointed (June 30, 1865) by the President, and in September a State convention, at Columbia, repealed the ordinance of secession, and declared slavery abolished. In October James L. Orr was chosen governor, with other State officers, and the government passed into their hands Dec. 25, 1865. This government continued until superseded (March, 1867) by military government, South and North Carolina being included in one military district. On Jan. 14, 1868, at a convention composed of thirty-four white people and sixty-three colored, a constitution was adopted, which was ratified at an election in April, 1869, by a large majority. Members of the legislature (72 white and 85 colored) and representatives in Congress were chosen. For eight years the government of South Carolina was in the hands of "Carpet-baggers" and negroes, and was a shameless caricature of what a republican government should be. In April, 1877, a commission sent by President Hayes found Governor Packard at the head of a rump government, and, obtaining guaranties from Governor Nicholls and his legislature, advised the President to withdraw the United States troops. The President so directed.

Later Events.—A free common-school system was established in 1870; an act declaring valid the bonds issued by the State between Aug. 26, 1868, and March 26, 1869, was passed in 1872; two legislative bodies assembled, and Daniel H. Chamberlain (Republican) and Gen. Wade Hampton (Democrat) were declared elected governor in 1876; Chamberlain withdrew his claim to the office in 1877; the State Dispensary Act took effect, and the first dispensary was opened (Charleston) in 1893; and, after much opposition in three counties, the dispensary law was pronounced constitutional in 1894 (see below). In 1903 the State provided for the establishment of public-school libraries, and in 1907 for public high schools, a ten-hour day for cotton and woollen mills, and the abolition of State liquor dispensaries in places where the popular vote was against them. In 1908 there was a controversy between the national and State governments over the disposal of the remaining funds of the State Dispensary (about $800,000). United States Judge Jeter C. Pritchard decided the question to be one of federal jurisdiction and restrained the State commission from disposing of the funds. The State authorities opposed this decision, but the United States Circuit Court sustained it. Many prosecutions were instituted against persons alleged to have defrauded the State out of large sums while the dispensary law was in operation.

A law providing that children belong exclusively to their fathers, and can be given away or willed away from their mothers, was recently declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of South Carolina, which declared it to be in contravention of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States. "It seems perfectly clear," said the court, "that the General Assembly cannot empower the father, at his own will, to deprive the mother and the children of these legal rights so long established as elements of personal liberty."

The Dispensary Law.—In 1892 the sale of intoxicating liquors was made a State monopoly. It provided for a State board of control, which should purchase all intoxicating liquors allowed to be sold in the State, and supply them to regularly appointed dispensers in each county. Thus the traffic was to be carried on by regular State officers, and the entire profits were to go direct into the State treasury. The act restricted the sale of any kind of intoxicating liquors after July 1, 1893, to the State dispensaries, and forbade sales to minors or known drunkards. The law had scarcely been enacted when it met with fierce opposition throughout the

State. Governor Tillman gave it hearty official support. In 1894 the Supreme Court of the State decided that the law was unconstitutional, but the legislature of 1893 modified the original act considerably, and the Court sustained the law in this form. In January, 1897, the United States Supreme Court decided that the section forbidding the importation of liquor into the State by private persons violated the interstate commerce laws of Congress. The other portions of the law have since been carried out with such success as to lead to the introduction of a similar measure in North Carolina. In 1899 the dispensary receipts were $1,638,939. In 1901 the total receipts from the dispensary system, including a surplus from the previous year, were $2,328,681; the aggregate purchases made during the year, $1,617,973; the net profit to the State school fund was $120,962; the net profit to the counties and towns was $424,285; and the board held $611,354,—accrued school fund—for a working capital. The profits are divided among the State, counties, cities, and towns, the share of the State (one-fourth) being applied to the public-school funds. The net profits of the State in the nine years of the existence of the laws aggregated over $2,000,000.

South Carolina Interstate West Indian Exposition of 1901-02. In the city of Charleston, S. C., from Dec 1, 1901, to May 1, 1902, for the purpose of demonstrating the development of the Southern States since the Civil War, and the industries and resources of Cuba, Porto Rico, Mexico, and South America.

SOUTH DAKOTA

South Dakota (for derivation of name, see NORTH DAKOTA), a State in the West North Central Division of the North American Union; bounded on the n. by North Dakota, e. by Minnesota and Iowa, s. by Nebraska, and w. by Montana and Wyoming; area, 77,615 square miles, of which 747 are water surface; extreme breadth, e. to w., 380 miles; extreme length, n. to s., 245 miles; number of counties, 57; capital, Pierre; popular name, "the Coyote State"; State motto, "Under God the people rule"; organized as a Territory, March 2, 1861; admitted into the Union as the fortieth State, Nov. 2, 1889. Pop. (1910), 583,888.

General Statistics.—South Dakota, like her northern sister, is especially noted for her agricultural interests. There are over 77,600 farms, containing 15,827,000 improved acres, and representing in lands, buildings, and implements over $1,037,213,000, an increase in value of lands and buildings of 356 per cent. in ten years. The ordinary farm products have an annual value of over $121,390,000, wheat ($42,881,000), corn ($26,385,000), oats ($16,037,000), and hay and forage ($15,240,000) leading. Irrigation projects completed and under construction represent an outlay of over $3,000,000. Domestic animals, poultry, and bees have a value of nearly $127,050,000, horses ($73,000,000), cattle ($36,000,000), and swine ($10,382,000) leading. The principal mineral production is gold, yielding the greater part of a total of $8,528,000.

General business interests are served by ninety-nine national banks, having $3,965,000 capital and resources of $42,815,181, and 501 State, stock savings, and private banks, with $6,946,275 capital and $64,146,307 resources. The exchanges at the clearing-house at Sioux Falls have exceeded $47,580,000 in a single year. Manufacturing is still in its infancy, though in number of factory-system establishments, capital investment, cost of materials, and value of products, it has nearly doubled in ten years, the Bureau of the Census reporting, for the calendar year 1909, over 1,000 establishments, $12,971,000 capital, $11,463,000 value of materials, and $17,845,000 value of output. The principal manufactures are flour and grist, and butter, cheese, and condensed milk.

Religious interests are promoted by 1,801 organizations, having 1,461 church edifices, 161,961 communicants or members, 71,554 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $4,538.013, the strongest denominations numerically being the Roman Catholic, Lutheran, Meth-

odist, Congregational, Protestant Episcopal, Presbyterian, and Baptist. The Roman Catholic Church has bishops at Lead City and Sioux Falls, and the Protestant Episcopal a missionary bishop at Sioux Falls. The school age is 6–21; enrollment in the public schools, 121,979; average daily attendance, 76,694; value of public-school property, $7,387,129; total revenue $3,352,367; total expenditure, $3,645,996. For the higher education of men and both sexes there are the University of South Dakota, at Vermilion; State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Brookings; State School of Mines, Rapid City; State School of Technology, Aberdeen; Huron College (Presb.); Dakota Wesleyan University, Mitchell; Redfield College (Cong.); Yankton College (Cong.); normal schools at Aberdeen, Madison, Spearfish, and Springfield; and a manual and industrial training school at Elk Point.

STATE SEAL OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

The State maintains a school for the deaf at Redfield, one for the blind at Gary, and a reform school at Plankington.

Government.—A State constitution was framed at Sioux Falls in 1885; the Territorial legislature passed a local-option law in 1887; a popular vote favored a division of the Territory into two States in 1887; the Sioux Falls constitution was amended and adopted in 1889; and in the latter year the first legislature under the constitution convened at Pierre, which was made the permanent capital in 1890. The executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary, $3,000), lieutenant-governor, secretary of State, treasurer, auditor, attorney-general, superintendent of education, and commissioners of lands and insurance—official terms, two years. The legislature consists of a senate of forty-five members and a house of representatives of 104 members—terms of each, two years; salary of each, $5 per diem; sessions biennial; limit, sixty days. The chief judicial authority is a Supreme Court, comprising a presiding judge and four justices. The State has no bonded debt, and at the end of 1910 the total floating debt was $1,081,251; assessed valuation for 1909, $330,252,156; tax rate $4 per $1,000.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

William Jayne	appointed	1861
Newton Edmunds	"	1863
Andrew J. Faulk	"	1866
John A. Burbank	"	1869
John A. Pennington	"	1874
William A. Howard	"	1878
N. G. Ordway	"	1880
Gilbert A. Pierce	"	1884
Louis K. Church	"	1889
Arthur C. Mellette	"	1889

STATE GOVERNORS.

Arthur C. Mellette	elected	1889
Charles H. Sheldon	"	1893
Andrew E. Lee	"	1896
Charles N. Herried	"	1900
Coe I. Crawford	"	1906
Robert L. Vessey	"	1909

Dakota Territory ranked forty-second in population among the States and Territories under the census of 1860; forty-fifth in 1870; and fortieth in 1880; and the State of South Dakota ranked thirty-seventh under the censuses of 1890, 1900, and 1910.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Cong.	Term.
Gideon C. Moody	51st to 52d	1889 to 1891
Richard F. Pettigrew	51st " 57th	1889 " 1901
James H. Kyle	52d " 57th	1891 " 1901
Robert J. Gamble	57th " —	1901 " ——
Alfred B. Kittredge	57th " 61st	1901 " 1909
Coe I. Crawford	61st " —	1909 " ——

In the apportionment of representation in Congress, South Dakota was given two members under the censuses of 1880, 1890, and 1900, and three in 1910.

History.—The early history of this region has been narrated under NORTH DAKOTA (*q. v.*), and that of South Dakota immediately preceding and at Statehood, under *Government.* The Australian-ballot system was introduced in 1891; prize-fighting within the State was prohibited in 1895; a constitutional amendment providing for a State-dispensary system was adopted in 1898; equal suffrage was defeated in 1898 and again in 1911; an act carrying into effect a constitutional amendment relating to the initiative and referendum was adopted in 1899; and the amendment was practically abolished by a decision of the Supreme Court in 1901. The divorce laws were changed in 1907, so as to require a residence of one year in the State and three months in the county preparatory to bringing suit and an open hearing in court, and the amended laws were ratified by popular vote in 1908. In 1910 six new laws and six proposed amendments to the constitution were voted on, and all but one (allowing State lands to be leased for agricultural purposes) were defeated. It is interesting to note that in this election the ballot was seven feet long and ten inches wide.

South Mills, BATTLE OF. In April, 1862, General Reno, with his troops, went in transports up the Pasquotank to within 3 miles of Elizabeth City, N. C., and, landing cautiously in the night of the 19th, a part of them, under Colonel Hawkins, pushed forward to surprise and intercept a body of Confederates known to be about leaving that place for Norfolk. Misled by his guide, the Confederates were apprised of the movement before he appeared, and near South Mills, in the vicinity of Camden Court-house, they assailed the Nationals with grape and canister. Reno, with his main body, met the attack bravely. The Confederates were flanked, and hastily withdrew. A gunboat drove them out of the woods along the river-bank, and Hawkins's Zouaves made a charge, but were repulsed with heavy loss. The Confederates were defeated. This event caused much consternation at Norfolk. The Nationals lost (chiefly of Hawkins's Zouaves) fifteen killed, ninety-six wounded, and two made prisoners. The Confederates left thirty killed and wounded on the field. Winton, at the head of the Chowan; Plymouth, at the mouth of the Roanoke; and Washington, at the head of the Pamlico River, were now all quietly occupied by the National forces. For the remainder of the year the coasts of North Carolina were in possession of the Nationals.

South Mountain, BATTLE OF. In 1862 the National army pursued the Confederates from Frederick, Md., in two columns over South Mountain into the valley of Antietam Creek. General Burnside led the right and centre by way of Turner's Gap; and the left, composed of Franklin's corps, went by the way of Crampton's Gap, on the same range, nearer Harper's Ferry. The division of D. H. Hill was the only Confederate force guarding Turner's Gap, and McLaws was guarding Crampton's Gap. The Confederates had no idea that the Nationals would make such a vigorous pursuit as they did; but on the morning of Sept. 14 a startling apparition met the eyes of the Confederates from the mountain heights. Pleasonton's cavalry was leading nearly the whole of the National army down the Kittoctan Hills and across the valley towards South Mountain. A portion of General Cox's division of Ohio troops reached the borders of the Gap early in the forenoon, and, under the cover of a portion of McMullin's battery, Cox pressed up the wooded and rocky acclivity. He was at first confronted by Garland's division, which was badly cut up and its commander killed in the severe action that ensued. The place of this division was soon filled by the troops of Anderson, supported by Rodes and Ripley. These held the position for a long time, but finally gave way, and Cox succeeded in gaining the crest of the mountain. It was now noon.

Very soon the battle assumed far greater proportions, for two of Longstreet's brigades came to the aid of Hill. These were soon followed by Longstreet himself with seven brigades, making the Confederate force defending the Gap and the two crests about 30,000 strong. First the divisions of National troops of Wilcox, Rodman, and Sturgis came up, followed soon after by Hooker's troops, and a little later a general battle-line was formed

BATTLE OF SOUTH MOUNTAIN.

with Ricketts's, Reno's, and King's divisions. At 4 P.M. fighting was general all along the line, and at many points the ground was contested inch by inch. General Hatch, who commanded King's division, was wounded, when General Doubleday took his command, his own passing to the care of General Wainwright, who was soon disabled. At dusk Hooker had flanked and beaten the Confederate left. Reno's command, which had gained a foothold on the crest, fought desperately until dark. At about sunset their leader, at the head of the troops in an open field, was killed. He died almost at the moment of victory, and his command devolved on General Cox.

Meade, with his brigades, led by General Seymour and Colonels Magilton and Gallagher, fought on the right of Hatch's division. General Duryée, whose fine brigade of Ricketts's division had participated in the later struggles of Pope with Lee, was just coming up when the contest ceased at that point. Meanwhile the brigades of Gibbons and Hartsuff had pushed up the road along the Gap, fighting and winning steadily until about 9 P.M., when, having reached a point near the summit of the Gap, their ammunition was exhausted. But the victory for the Nationals was secured. During the night Lee withdrew his forces, and so ended the battle of South Mountain. Franklin meanwhile, confronted by Confederates led by Howell Cobb, had fought

and driven his enemies over the mountain into the valley at Crampton's Gap, and held a position in Pleasant Valley, within 6 miles of Harper's Ferry.

South River, the name applied by the Dutch of NEW NETHERLAND (*q. v.*) to the Delaware River, the name North River being applied to the Hudson River.

South Sea Expedition. Propositions having been made to the national government for the fitting out of an expedition to survey and explore the South Seas in the Antarctic regions, the project was approved, and in December, 1836, a scientific corps was appointed, to receive pay from July 4, 1837. It was to be commanded by Capt. Ap Catesby Jones, of the United States navy. An expedition was organized, but, serious disputes arising, it was disbanded. Another was organized, and its command was intrusted to Lieut. Charles Wilkes, of the navy. The scientific corps consisted of nine members—namely, H. Hale, philologist; C. Pickering and T. R. Peale, naturalists; J. Couthong, conchologist; J. D. Dana, mineralogist; W. Rich, botanist; J. Drayton and A. T. Agate, draughtsmen; Mr. Brackenridge, horticulturist. The squadron consisted of the frigates *Vincennes* and *Peacock*, and the brig *Porpoise* and schooners *Flying-fish* and *Sea-horse* as tenders, with the store-ship *Relief*. It sailed from Hampton Roads Aug. 18, 1838, and on Jan. 26, 1839, was anchored opposite the mouth of the Rio Negro, Patagonia. The squadron, after touching at various groups of islands in the Pacific, visited New South Wales. Leaving Sydney in December (1839), important discoveries were made in the Antarctic regions. Lieutenant Wilkes then explored the Fiji and Hawaiian islands, and in 1841 visited the northwest coast of North America. He crossed the Pacific from San Francisco, Cal., and visited some of the islands of the Indian Archipelago, and thence sailed to the Cape of Good Hope and the island of St. Helena, and cast anchor in New York Harbor June 10, 1842. The expedition had penetrated to lat. 66° S. It made a voyage of about 90,000 miles, and brought home a large number of fine specimens of natural history and of other departments of scientific research, which are preserved in the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D. C.

THE SAYRE HOUSE, SOUTHAMPTON.

Southampton, a town in Suffolk county, N. Y., on the south shore of Long Island. It is noted as the oldest English settlement in the State; was known by the Indians as Agawam; settled by colonists from Massachusetts in 1640; passed under the jurisdiction of Connecticut in 1645; and has belonged to New York since 1664, when it was granted to the Duke of York. The town is also noted for having been occupied by the British during the Long Island campaign in the Revolutionary War, and for possessing the remains of a defensive work of that time.

Southard, SAMUEL LEWIS, jurist; born in Baskingridge, N. J., June 9, 1787; graduated at Princeton College in 1804; admitted to the bar of Virginia; became associate justice of the New Jersey Supreme Court in 1815; and elected to the United States Senate as a Whig to fill a vacancy in 1821. Soon after the expiration of this term he was appointed Secretary of the Navy, and served till March

3, 1829, and during this period he was at times also acting Secretary of the Treasury and of War. In 1829 he was appointed attorney-general of New Jersey; in 1832 was elected governor of the State; and in 1833–42 was again in the United States Senate, becoming its president on the death of President Harrison and the accession of John Tyler in 1841. He died in Fredericksburg, Va., June 26, 1842.

Southern Army, THE CONTINENTAL. After the defeat of Gates in 1780, Washington selected Gen. Nathanael Greene to command the Southern army. Maj. Henry Lee's corps of horse and some companies of artillery were ordered to the South. The Baron de Steuben was ordered to the same service; and Thaddeus Kosciuszko, a patriot of Poland, was chosen engineer of that department to supply the place of Duportail, made prisoner at Charleston. Efforts were made to reorganize the Southern army. To supply the place of captured regiments, the Assembly of Virginia voted 3,000 men, apportioned among the counties, and a special tax was laid to raise means to pay bounties. In addition to money offered, volunteers were each offered 300 acres of land at the end of the war and a "healthy, sound negro" or $200 in specie. Virginia also issued $850,000 in bills of credit to supply the treasury. North Carolina used its feeble resources to the same end. Drafts and recruits, and one whole battalion, came forward; and as Cornwallis retired General Gates advanced, first to Salisbury, and then to Charlotte, where General Greene took the command (Dec. 2). On the following day Gates departed for the headquarters of Washington to submit to an inquiry into his conduct at Camden. Greene found the troops in a wretched condition —clothes in tatters, insufficient food, pay in arrears producing discontent, and not a dollar in the military chest. Subsistence was obtained only by impressment. But he showed his usual energy and prepared for active operations even with such unpromising materials, arranging the army in two divisions, and posting the main body at Cheraw, east of the Pedee; while Morgan and others were sent to take possession of the country near the junction of the Pacolet and Broad rivers. See GATES, HORATIO; GREENE, NATHANAEL.

SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY

Southern Confederacy. The legislature of South Carolina passed the following ordinance, Dec. 20, 1860:

"We, the people of the State of South Carolina, in convention assembled, do declare and ordain, and it is hereby declared and ordained, that the ordinance adopted by us in convention on the 23d day of May, in the year of our Lord 1788, whereby the Constitution of the United States was ratified, and also all acts and parts of the General Assembly of this State ratifying amendments of the said Constitution, are hereby repealed; and that the Union now subsisting between South Carolina and other States, under the name of the United States of America, is hereby dissolved."

This was the first action on the part of a State legislature which led to the Montgomery convention.

The delegates from six States—South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida met at Montgomery, Ala., Feb. 4, 1861. Jefferson Davis was inaugurated as President, Feb. 18, 1861, and the permanent constitution was adopted March 11, 1861.

President Davis appointed Robert Toombs, Secretary of State; C. J. Memminger, Secretary of Treasury; L. Pope Walker, Secretary of War; Stephen R. Mallory, Secretary of Navy; Judah P. Benjamin, Attorney-General; and John H. Reagan, Postmaster-General.

The provisional Confederate Congress held four sessions: First, from Feb. 4, 1861, to March 16, 1861; second, from April 29, 1861, to May 22, 1861; third, from July 20, 1861, to Aug. 22, 1861; fourth, from Nov. 18, 1861, to Feb. 17, 1862.

Under the permanent constitution, which provided for twenty-six Senators and 106 members of the House of Representatives, there were two congresses. The first held four sessions:

First, from Feb. 18 to April 26, 1862; second, from Aug. 12 to Oct. 13, 1862; third, from Jan. 12 to May 8, 1863; fourth, from Dec. 7, 1863, to Feb. 18, 1864.

The second congress held two sessions: First, from May 2 to June 15, 1864; second, from Nov. 7, 1864, to March 18, 1865. See CONFEDERATE STATES.

CONSTITUTION OF THE CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA.

We, the people of the Confederate States, each State acting in its sovereign and independent character, in order to form a permanent federal government, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity—invoking the favor and guidance of Almighty God—do ordain and establish this constitution for the Confederate States of America.

ARTICLE I.

SECTION 1.

1. All legislative powers herein delegated shall be vested in a Congress of the Confederate States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION 2.

1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and the electors in each State shall be citizens of the Confederate States, and have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature; but no person of foreign birth, not a citizen of the Confederate States, shall be allowed to vote for any officer, civil or political, State or federal.

2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained the age of twenty-five years, and be a citizen of the Confederate States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Confederacy, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all slaves. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the Confederate States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every 50,000, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of South Carolina shall be entitled to choose six; the State of Georgia, ten; the State of Alabama, nine; the State of Florida, two; the State of Mississippi, seven; the State of Louisiana, six; and the State of Texas, six.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment; except that any judicial or other federal officer resident and acting solely within the limits of any State, may be impeached by a vote of two-thirds of both branches of the legislature thereof.

SECTION 3.

1. The Senate of the Confederate States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen for six years by the legislature thereof, at the regular session next immediately preceding the commencement of the term of service; and each senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year; so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a senator, who

shall not have attained the age of thirty years, and be a citizen of the Confederate States; and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of the State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice-President of the Confederate States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the Confederate States.

6. The Senate shall have sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the Confederate States is tried, the chief-justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit, under the Confederate States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable to and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment according to law.

Section 4.

1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof, subject to the provisions of this constitution; but the Congress may, at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the times and places of choosing senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year; and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall, by law, appoint a different day.

Section 5.

1. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds of the whole number, expel a member.

3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such part as may in its judgment require secrecy, and the ayes and noes of the members of either House, on any question, shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

Section 6.

1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the Confederate States. They shall, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the Confederate States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the Confederate States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office. But Congress may, by law, grant to the principal officer in each of the executive departments a seat upon the floor of either House with the privilege of discussing any measure appertaining to his department.

Section 7.

1. All bills for raising the revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed

both Houses shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the Confederate States; if he approve he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases, the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return; in which case it shall not be a law. The President may approve any appropriation and disapprove any other appropriation in the same bill. In such case he shall, in signing the bill, designate the appropriations disapproved; and shall return a copy of such appropriations, with his objections, to the House in which the bill shall have originated; and the same proceedings shall then be had as in case of other bills disapproved by the President.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of both Houses may be necessary (except on questions of adjournment), shall be presented to the President of the Confederate States; and before the same shall take effect shall be approved by him; or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of both Houses, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in case of a bill.

Section 8.

The Congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, for revenue necessary to pay the debts, provide for the common defence, and carry on the government of the Conederate States; but no bounties shall be granted from the treasury; nor shall any duties or taxes on importations from foreign nations be laid to promote or foster any branch of industry; and all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the Confederate States.

2. To borrow money on the credit of the Confederate States.

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes; but neither this, nor any clause contained in the constitution, shall ever be construed to delegate the power to Congress to appropriate money for any internal improvement intended to facilitate commerce; except for the purpose of furnishing lights, beacons, and buoys, and other aids to navigation upon the coasts, and the improvement of harbors, and the removing of obstructions in river navigation; in all which cases, such duties shall be laid on the navigation facilitated thereby, as may be necessary to pay the costs and expenses thereof.

4. To establish uniform laws of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the Confederate States, but no law of Congress shall discharge any debt contracted before the passage of the same.

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures.

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the Confederate States.

7. To establish post-offices and post-routes; but the expenses of the post-office department, after the first day of March, in the year of our Lord eighteen hundred and sixty-three, shall be paid out of its own revenues.

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries.

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court.

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations.

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and on water.

12. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years.

13. To provide and maintain a navy.

14. To make rules for government and regulation of the land and naval forces.

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Confederate States, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions.

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the Confederate States; reserving to the States, respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress.

17. To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding 10 miles square) as may, by cession of one or more States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the Confederate States; and to exercise a like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings, and

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the Confederate States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION 9.

1. The importation of negroes of the African race, from any foreign country, other than the slave-holding States or Territories of the United States of America, is hereby forbidden; and Congress is required to pass such laws as shall effectually prevent the same.

2. Congress shall also have power to prohibit the introduction of slaves from any State not a member of, or Territory not belonging to, this Confederacy.

3. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in case of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

4. No bill of attainder, or *ex post facto* law, or law denying or impairing the right of property in negro slaves, shall be passed.

5. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

6. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State, except by a vote of two-thirds of both Houses.

7. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another.

8. No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

9. Congress shall appropriate no money from the treasury except by a vote of two-thirds of both Houses, taken by yeas and nays, unless it be asked and estimated for by some one of the heads of departments, and submitted to Congress by the President; or for the purpose of paying its own expenses and contingencies; or for the payment of claims against the Confederate States, the justice of which shall have been judicially declared by a tribunal for the investigation of claims against the government, which it is hereby made the duty of Congress to establish.

10. All bills appropriating money shall specify in federal currency the exact amount of each appropriation and the purposes for which it is made; and Congress shall grant no extra compensation to any public contractor, officer, agent, or servant, after such contract shall have been made or such service rendered.

11. No title of nobility shall be granted by the Confederate States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of Congress, accept of any present, emoluments, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

12. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and petition the government for a redress of grievances.

13. A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

14. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war, but in a manner prescribed by law.

15. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrant shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

16. No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service, in time of war, or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself; nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall any private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

17. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor; and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

18. In suits of common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed $20, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved; and no fact so tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the Confederacy, than according to the rules of the common law.

19. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel or unusual punishment inflicted.

20. Every law, or resolution having the force of law, shall relate to but one subject, and that shall be expressed in the title.

Section 10.

1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisals; coin money; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, or *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts; or grant any title of nobility.

2. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the Confederate States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of Congress.

3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, except on sea-going vessels, for the improvement of its rivers and harbors navigated by the said vessels; but such duties shall not conflict with any treaties of the Confederate States with foreign nations; and any surplus of revenue, thus derived, shall, after making such improvement, be paid into the common treasury; nor shall any State keep troops or ships-of-war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay. But when any river divides or flows through two or more States, they may enter into compacts with each other to improve the navigation thereof.

ARTICLE II.

Section 1.

1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the Confederate States of America. He and the Vice-President shall hold their offices for the term of six years; but the President shall not be re-eligible. The President and Vice-President shall be elected as follows:

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the Confederate States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. The electors shall meet in their respective States and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign, and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the government of the Confederate States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person shall have such majority, then, from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But, in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representatives from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President.

4. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such a number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary for a choice.

5. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the Confederate States.

6. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the Confederate States.

7. No person except a natural born citizen of the Confederate States, or a citizen thereof at the time of the adoption of this constitution, or a citizen thereof born in the United States prior to the 20th December, 1860, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the limits of the Confederate States, as they may exist at the time of his election.

8. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President; and the Congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability both of the President and the Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act accordingly until the disability be removed or a President shall be elected.

9. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected; and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the Confederate States, or any of them.

10. Before he enters on the execution of the duties of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the Confederate States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution thereof."

Section 2.

1. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the Confederate States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the Confederate States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the prin-

cipal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the Confederate States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the Confederate States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The principal officer in each of the executive departments, and all persons connected with the diplomatic service, may be removed from office at the pleasure of the President. All other civil officers of the executive department may be removed at any time by the President, or other appointing power, when their services are unnecessary, or for dishonesty, incapacity, inefficiency, misconduct, or neglect of duty; and when so removed. the removal shall be reported to the Senate, together with the reasons therefor.

4. The President shall have power to fill all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of the next session; but no person rejected by the Senate shall be reappointed to the same office during their ensuing recess.

Section 3.

1. The President shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Confederacy, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them; and, in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he may think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the Confederate States.

Section 4.

1. The President and Vice-President, and all civil officers of the Confederate States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, or conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

Section 1.

1. The judicial power of the Confederate States shall be vested in one Superior Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during continuance in office.

Section 2.

1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases arising under the constitution, the laws of the Confederate States, or treaties made or which shall be made under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty or maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the Confederate States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State, where the State is plaintiff; between citizens claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects; but no State shall be sued by a citizen or subject of any foreign state.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all cases, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury, and such

trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3.

1. Treason against the Confederate States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION 1.

1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2.

1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens of the several States, and shall have the right of transit and sojourn in any State of this Confederacy, with their slaves and other property; and the right of property in said slaves shall not be thereby impaired.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime against the laws of such State, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No slave or other person having been held to service or labor in any State or Territory of the Confederate States, under the laws thereof, escaping or unlawfully carried into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor; but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such slave belongs, or to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION 3.

1. Other States may be admitted into this Confederacy by a vote of two-thirds of the whole House of Representatives, and two-thirds of the Senate, the Senate voting by States; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations concerning the property of the Confederate States, including the lands thereof.

3. The Confederate States may acquire new territory; and Congress shall have power to legislate and provide governments for the inhabitants of all territory belonging to the Confederate States, lying without the limits of the several States, and may permit them, at such times, and in such manner as it may by law provide, to form States to be admitted into the Confederacy. In all such territory, the institution of negro slavery, as it now exists in the Confederate States, shall be recognized and protected by Congress and by the territorial government; and the inhabitants of the several Confederate States and Territories shall have the right to take to such territory any slaves lawfully held by them in any of the States and Territories of the Confederate States.

4. The Confederate States shall guarantee to every State that now is or hereafter may become a member of this Confederacy, a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature (or of the executive when the legislature is not in session), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

SECTION 1.

1. Upon the demand of any three States, legally assembled in their several conventions, the Congress shall summon

a convention of all the States, to take into consideration such amendments to the constitution as the said States shall concur in suggesting at the time when the said demand is made; and should any of the proposed amendments to the constitution be agreed on by the said convention—voting by States—and the same be ratified by the legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, or by conventions in two-thirds thereof—as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the general convention—they shall thenceforward form a part of this constitution. But no State shall, without its consent, be deprived of its equal representation in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

SECTION 1.

1. The government established by this constitution is the successor of the provisional government of the Confederate States of America, and all the laws passed by the latter shall continue in force until the same shall be repealed or modified; and all officers appointed by the same shall remain in office until their successors are appointed and qualified, or the offices abolished.

2. All debts contracted and engagements entered into before the adoption of this constitution shall be as valid against the Confederate States under this constitution as under the provisional government.

3. This constitution, and the laws of the Confederate States made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the Confederate States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby; anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

4. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the Confederate States and of the several States, shall be bound, by oath or affirmation, to support this constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office of public trust under the Confederate States.

5. The enumeration, in the constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people of the several States.

6. The powers not delegated to the Confederate States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States, respectively, or to the people thereof.

ARTICLE VII.

SECTION 1.

1. The ratification of the conventions of five States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

2. When five States shall have ratified this constitution in the manner before specified, the Congress, under the provisional constitution, shall prescribe the time for holding the election of President and Vice-President, and for the meeting of the electoral college, and for counting the votes and inaugurating the President. They shall also prescribe the time for holding the first election of members of Congress under this constitution, and the time for assembling the same. Until the assembling of such Congress, the Congress under the provisional constitution shall continue to exercise the legislative powers granted them; not extending beyond the time limited by the constitution of the provisional government.

Southern Conventions in 1850.—The number of delegates from the several State were: Alabama, four; Florida, four; Georgia, eleven; Mississippi, eight; South Carolina, sixteen; Tennessee, fourteen; Virginia, one.

The Tennessee delegates did not vote for the November resolutions, but reported a substitute.

The Nashville convention, which met June 10, 1850, adopted the following resolutions:

1. Resolved, that the Territories of the United States belong to the people of the several States of this Union as their common property; that the citizens of the several States have equal rights to migrate with their property to these Territories, and are equally entitled to the protection of the federal government in the enjoyment of that property so long as the Territories remain under the charge of that government.

2. Resolved, that Congress has no power

to exclude from the territory of the United States any property lawfully held in the States of the Union, and any acts which may be passed by Congress to effect this result is a plain violation of the Constitution of the United States.

3. Resolved, that it is the duty of Congress to provide governments for the Territories, since the spirit of American institutions forbids the maintenance of military governments in time of peace; and as all laws heretofore existing in Territories once belonging to foreign powers which interfere with the full enjoyment of religion, the freedom of the press, the trial by jury, and all other rights of persons and property as secured or recognized in the Constitution of the United States, are necessarily void so soon as such Territories become American Territories, it is the duty of the federal government to make early provision for the enactment of those laws which may be expedient and necessary to secure to the inhabitants of and emigrants to such Territories the full benefit of the constitutional rights we assert.

4. Resolved, that to protect property existing in the several States of the Union, the people of these States invested the federal government with the powers of war and negotiation, and of sustaining armies and navies, and prohibiting to State authorities the exercise of the same powers. They made no discrimination in the protection to be afforded or the description of the property to be defended, nor was it allowed to the federal government to determine what should be held as property. Whatever the States deal with as property the federal government is bound to recognize and defend as such. Therefore it is the sense of this convention that all acts of the federal government which tend to denationalize property of any description recognized in the Constitution and laws of the States, or that discriminate in the degree and efficiency of the protection to be afforded to it, or which weaken or destroy the title of any citizen upon American Territories, are plain and palpable violations of the fundamental law under which it exists.

5. Resolved, that the slave-holding States cannot and will not submit to the enactment by Congress of any law imposing onerous conditions or restraints upon the rights of masters to remove with their property into the Territories of the United States, or to any law making discriminations in favor of the proprietors of other property against them.

6. Resolved, that it is the duty of the federal government plainly to recognize and firmly to maintain the equal rights of the citizens of the several States in the Territories of the United States, and to repudiate the power to make a discrimination between the proprietors of different species of property in the federal legislation. The fulfilment of this duty by the federal government would greatly tend to restore the peace of the country, and to allay the exasperation and excitement which now exists between the different sections of the Union. For it is the deliberate opinion of this convention that the tolerance Congress has given to the notion that federal authority might be employed incidently and indirectly to subvert or weaken the institution existing in the States confessedly beyond federal jurisdiction and control, is a main cause of the discord which menaces the existence of the Union, and which has wellnigh destroyed the efficient action of the federal government itself.

7. Resolved, that the performance of this duty is required by the fundamental law of the Union. The equality of the people of the several States composing the Union cannot be disturbed without disturbing the frame of the American institutions. This principle is violated in the denial to the citizens of the slave-holding States of power to enter into the Territories with the property lawfully acquired in the States. The warfare against this right is a war upon the Constitution. The defenders of this right are defenders of the Constitution, those who deny or impair its exercise are unfaithful to the Constitution, and if disuuion follows the destruction of the right, they are the disunionists.

8. Resolved, that the performance of its duties, upon the principle we declare, would enable Congress to remove the embarrassments in which the country is now involved. The vacant Territories of the United States, no longer regarded as prizes for sectional rapacity and ambition,

would be gradually occupied by inhabitants drawn to them by their interests and feelings. The institutions fitted to them would be naturally applied by governments formed on American ideas, and approved by the deliberate choice of their constituents. The community would be educated and disciplined under a Republican administration in habits of self-government, and fitted for an association as a State, and to the enjoyment of a place in the Confederacy. A community so formed and organized might well claim admission to the Union, and none would dispute the validity of the claim.

9. Resolved, that a recognition of this principle would deprive the questions between Texas and the United States of their sectional character, and would leave them for adjustment without disturbance from sectional prejudice and passions, upon considerations of magnanimity and justice.

10. Resolved, that a recognition of this principle would infuse a spirit of conciliation in the discussion and adjustment of all the subjects of sectional dispute, which would afford a guarantee of an early and satisfactory determination.

11. Resolved, that in the event a dominant majority shall refuse to recognize the great constitutional rights we assert, and shall continue to deny the obligations of the federal government to maintain them, it is the sense of this convention that the Territories should be treated as property, and divided between the sections of the Union, so that the rights of both sections shall be adequately secured in their respective shares. That we are aware this course is open to grave objections, but we are ready to acquiesce in the adoption of the line of 36° 30′ N. latitude, extending to the Pacific Ocean, as an extreme concession, upon consideration of what is due to the stability of our institutions.

12. Resolved, that it is the opinion of this convention that this controversy should be ended, either by recognition of the constitutional rights of the Southern people, or by an equitable partition of the Territories. That the spectacle of a Confederacy of States, involved in quarrels over the fruits of a war in which the American arms were crowned with glory, is humiliating. That the incorporation of the Wilmot proviso, in the offer of settlement—a proposition which fourteen States regard as disparaging and dishonorable—is degrading to the country. A termination to this controversy by the disruption of the Confederacy, or by the abandonment of the Territories to prevent such a result, would be a climax to the shame which attaches to the controversy which it is the paramount duty of Congress to avoid.

13. Resolved, that this convention will not conclude that Congress will adjourn without making an adjustment of this controversy; and in the condition in which the convention finds the questions before Congress, it does not feel at liberty to discuss the methods suitable for a resistance to measures not yet adopted, which might involve a dishonor to the Southern States.

The Nashville convention reassembled in November, 1850, and adopted the following preamble and resolutions:

We, the delegates assembled from a portion of the States of this Confederacy, make this exposition of the causes which have brought us together, and of the rights which the States we represent are entitled to under the compact of Union.

We have amongst us two races, marked by such distinction of color and physical and moral qualities as forever forbid their living together on terms of social and political equality.

The black race have been slaves from the earliest settlement of our country, and our relations of master and slave have grown up from that time. A change in these relations must end in convulsion, and the entire ruin of one or of both races.

When the Constitution was adopted this relation of master and slave, as it exists, was expressly recognized and guarded in that instrument. It was a great and vital interest, involving our very existence as a separate people then as well as now.

The States of this Confederacy acceded to that compact, each one for itself, and ratified it as States.

If the non-slave-holding States, who are parties to that compact, disregard its provisions and endanger our peace and existence by united and deliberate action,

we have a right, as States, there being no common arbiter, to secede.

The object of those who are urging on the federal government in its aggressive policy upon our domestic institutions is, beyond all doubt, finally to overthrow them, and abolish the existing relation between the master and slave. We feel authorized to assert this from their own declarations, and from the history of events in this country for the last few years.

To abolish slavery or the slave-trade in the District of Columbia—to regulate the sale and transfer of slaves between the States—to exclude slave-holders with their property from the Territories—to admit California under the circumstances of the case, we hold to be all parts of the same system of measures, and subordinate the end they have in view, which is openly avowed to be the total overthrow of the institution.

We make no aggressive move. We stand upon the defensive. We invoke the spirit of the Constitution, and claim its guarantees. Our rights—our independence —the peace and existence of our families, depend upon the issue.

The federal government has within a few years acquired, by treaty and by triumphant war, vast Territories. This has been done by the counsels and arms of all, and the benefits and rights belong alike and equally to all the States. The federal government is but the common agent of the States united, and represents their conjoined sovereignty over subject-matter granted and defined in the compact.

The authority it exercises over all acquired territory must in good faith be exercised for the equal benefit of all the parties. To prohibit our citizens from settling there with the most valuable part of our property is not only degrading to us as equals, but violates our highest constitutional rights.

Restrictions and prohibitions against the slave-holding States, it would appear, are to be the fixed and settled policy of the government; and those States that are hereafter to be admitted into the federal Union from their extensive territories will but confirm and increase the power of the majority; and he knows little of history who cannot read our destiny in the future if we fail to do our duty now as free people.

We have been harassed and insulted by those who ought to have been our brethren in their constant agitation of a subject vital to us and the peace of our families. We have been outraged by the gross misrepresentations of our moral and social habits, and by the manner in which they have denounced us before the world. We have had our property enticed off, and the means of recovery denied us by our co-States in the Territories of the Union, which we were entitled to as political equals under the Constitution. Our peace has been endangered by incendiary appeals. The Union, instead of being considered a fraternal bond, has been used as the means of striking at our vital interests.

The admission of California, under the circumstances of the case, confirms an unauthorized and revolutionary seizure of public domain, and the exclusion of nearly half the States of the Confederacy from equal rights therein, destroys the line of 36° 30′, which was originally acquiesced in as a matter of compromise and peace, and appropriates to the Northern States 120,000 square miles below that line, and is so gross and palpable a violation of the principles of justice and equality as to shake our confidence in any security to be given by that majority who are now clothed with power to govern the future destiny of the Confederacy.

The recent purchase of territory by Congress from Texas, as low down as 32° on the Rio Grande, also indicates that the boundaries of the slave-holding States are fixed and our doom prescribed so far as it depends upon the will of a dominant majority, and nothing now can save us from a degraded destiny but the spirit of freemen who know their rights and are resolved to maintain them, be the consequences what they may.

We have no powers that are binding upon the States we represent. But, in order to produce system and concerted action, we recommend the following resolutions—viz.

1. Resolved, that we have ever cherished, and do now cherish, a cordial attachment to the constitutional union of the States, and that to preserve and perpetuate that Union unimpaired this convention originated and has now reassembled.

2. Resolved, that the union of the States is a union of equal and independent sovereignties, and that the powers delegated to the federal government can be resumed by the several States, whenever it may seem to them proper and necessary.

3. Resolved, that all the evils anticipated by the South, and which occasioned this convention to assemble, have been realized by the failure to extend the Missouri line of compromise to the Pacific Ocean; by the admission of California as a State; by the organization of Territorial governments for Utah and New Mexico without giving adequate protection to the property of the South; by the dismemberment of Texas; by the abolition of the slave-trade and the emancipation of slaves carried into the District of Columbia for sale.

4. Resolved, that we earnestly recommend to all parties in the slave-holding States to refuse to go into or countenance any national convention whose object may be to nominate candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency of the United States, under any party denomination whatever, until our constitutional rights are secured.

5. Resolved, that in view of these aggressions, and of those threatened and impending, we earnestly recommend to the slave-holding States to meet in a congress or convention, to be held at such time and place as the States desiring to be represented may designate, to be composed of double the number of their Senators and Representatives in the Congress of the United States, intrusted with full power and authority to deliberate and act with the view and intention of arresting further aggression, and, if possible, of restoring the constitutional rights of the South, and, if not, to provide for their future safety and independence.

6. Resolved, that the president of this convention be requested to forward copies of the foregoing preamble and resolutions to the governors of each of the slave-holding States of the Union, to be laid before their respective legislatures at their earliest assembling.

Southern Education Board, an organization founded in New York City in 1901 for the purpose of aiding State and local authorities in the South in building up State systems of public schools. It cooperates with the GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD (*q. v.*) and the Peabody and Slater Funds.

Southern Independence Association. A large proportion of the British ruling classes, from the prime minister down to the unofficial people, were anxious to see the prosperous and influential republic of the West overturned. Elated by the disasters to the National army at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville in the spring of 1863, these British sympathizers became very active, and urged their government to acknowledge the independence of the Confederate States. Public meetings were held in favor of the Confederates. At one of these the following resolution was adopted: "Resolved, that in the opinion of this meeting the government would act wisely, both in the interests of England and those of the world, were they immediately to enter into negotiations with the great powers of Europe for the purpose of obtaining the acknowledgment by them of the independence of the Confederate States of North America." A "Southern Independence Association" was formed. Its membership was composed of powerful representatives of the Church, State, and trade. Not a few of them were members of the House of Lords and House of Commons. There were baronets, clergymen, lawyers, magistrates, and merchants. This association was condemned by many Englishmen, and the British government was too prudent to listen to the suggestions of the association, or to the proposals of members of the peace faction in New York made to the British ambassador six months before. See BEECHER, HENRY WARD.

Southgate, JAMES HAYWARD, born in Norfolk, Va., July 12, 1859; was educated in the University of North Carolina; and in 1882 engaged in banking and insurance business in Durham, N. C. He was for many years active in the prohibition movement, and served on the platform committee of the National Prohibition Conventions of 1892 and 1896. In the latter year he was the candidate of his party for the Vice-Presidency. The ticket received 13,873 popular votes.

Southwest Pass, ENGAGEMENT AT. In the fall of 1861 there was a blockading squadron at the Southwest Pass of the

Mississippi River, composed of the steamer *Richmond*, sloops-of-war *Vincennes* and *Preble*, and steam-tender *Water-witch*, commanded by Capt. J. Pope. J. S. Hollins, formerly of the United States navy, was there in command of the *Manassas*, a Confederate ram. About 4 A.M. on Oct. 12, this ram appeared suddenly close to the *Richmond*, and by the time an alarm could be given by the watch, her iron prow had struck the war-steamer abreast the port fore-channels, staving a hole in the ship's side. Then she withdrew and attempted to breach the *Richmond's* stern, but failed. A signal of danger had been given to the other vessels. They slipped their cables and ran down to the Pass, while the *Richmond* gave the assailant a volley from her port battery. The commander of the *Vincennes*, mistaking a signal, attempted to set fire to his vessel. They abandoned her, but, happily, the match intended to explode her magazine went out, and her crew returned to her. The *Richmond* and *Vincennes* had grounded, and for a while were bombarded by Hollins, who was, however, soon driven up the river.

Southwest Territory. Organized in 1790 from the territory ceded to the United States by North and South Carolina. The State of Tennessee and part of Mississippi were formed from this territory.

Southworth, CONSTANT, colonist; born in Leyden, Holland, in 1614; was taken to Plymouth colony, Mass., in 1623, where his mother went to become the second wife of Gov. William Bradford. In 1633 he was one of the settlers of Duxbury, which he represented in the legislature; was later commissioner of the united colonies, assistant governor of Plymouth, and governor of the Kennebec plantation. It is supposed that he wrote the supplement to Nathaniel Morton's *New England's Memorial*. He died in Duxbury, Mass., about 1685.

Sowards, JOSEPH, scout; born in Kentucky about 1840. When the Civil War broke out he sided with the National government, a stand which aroused the animosity of his neighbors, so that he was forced to flee to the woods. While in concealment a party demanded that his father should make known his son's hiding-place. This the father declined to do, and for the refusal he was shot dead by Judge Cecil, one of the party. In 1861 Sowards joined the National army under Gen. James A. Garfield, by whom he was made a scout. Later, at the battle of Middle Creek, while Marshall was retreating, Judge Cecil was taken prisoner. Sowards charged him with the death of his father, to which Cecil returned a scornful reply, and Sowards shot him. Although a court-martial sentenced the young man to death, Garfield secured for him only such guards as were friendly to the prisoner, and he was allowed to escape. After this he attached himself to Garfield's camp, gaining important information as to the movements of the enemy. His scouting resulted in the success of the Pound Gap expedition that freed Kentucky from the presence of organized Confederate bands. After this Sowards disappeared, and it was supposed that he was killed about 1863 by Confederate guerillas.

Sower, or **Sauer,** CHRISTOPHER, printer; born in Laasphe, Germany, in 1693; graduated at a German university and studied medicine; settled in Germantown, Pa., in 1731; purchased the *High-German Pennsylvanian Historian*, which became very popular among the German-Americans, in 1739. In 1743 he published the Bible in German, which was the first printed in America, with the exception of Eliot's Indian Bible. He introduced cast-iron stoves into general use, and is supposed to have been their designer. He died in Germantown, Pa., Sept. 25, 1758.

His son CHRISTOPHER, publisher; born in Laasphe, Germany, Sept. 26, 1721; became a minister of the Dunker Church; was bishop or overseer in 1747–84; succeeded his father in the publishing business, and was the largest book manufacturer in America for many years. In 1776 he began to publish a third edition of the Bible in German. When the British occupied Germantown they seized the unbound sheets of this Bible and bedded their horses with them, and in the battle there many of these sheets were used for wadding in the artillery. Later Sower was accused of being a spy, and his property was confiscated. He died in poverty in Methatchen, Pa., Aug. 4, 1784.

Spahr, CHARLES BARZILLAI, journalist; born in Columbus, O., July 20, 1860;

graduated at Amherst College in 1881, and studied in Europe in 1884–85; became associate editor of *The Outlook*. He was the author of *Present Distribution of Wealth; America's Working People; The Taxation of Labor; The Single Tax; Against Bimetallism*, etc. He was drowned in England, Sept. 1, 1904.

Spaight, Richard Dobbs, governor; born in Newbern, N. C., March 25, 1758; graduated at the University of Glasgow, returned to the United States in 1778 and became aide to Gen. Richard Caswell; participated in the battle of Camden; member of the North Carolina legislature in 1781–83; elected to Congress in the latter year; held a seat in the convention which drew up the Constitution of the United States in 1787; elected governor of North Carolina in 1792; and served in Congress in 1798–1801. He died in Newbern, N. C., Sept. 6, 1862.

Spain. At one time or another more than one-half the present territory of the United States has been subject to the sovereign of Spain. From Mexico, the Spaniards claimed the country northward indefinitely. Cortez discovered California, and Spanish missionaries planted the cross far up the Pacific coast. In the interior, the Spanish adventurers west of the Rocky Mountains penetrated far to the northward — almost to the present southern boundary of the British possessions—in search of the precious metals, and everywhere they planted the Spanish tokens of sovereignty. They held possession of the country along the northern shore of the Gulf of Mexico (Florida and Texas) until a comparatively recent period. Everywhere that Spanish missionaries and traders gained a foothold the cross and the royal arms were set up. In 1507 King Ferdinand established a court which he called *Casa de Contratacion*, or Board of Trade, to which he committed the administration of American affairs.

The French under the lead of La Salle made the first European settlement in Texas. In 1714 the Viceroy of Mexico proceeded to colonize the country with Spaniards by planting missions in that territory. One was established at Natchitoches, within the present limits of Louisiana, another west of the Sabine, and others at different points. The establishment of these missions was under the direction of Capt. Don Domingo Ramo, and they were first in the hands of the Franciscans. The mission stations were really Spanish military posts. When war between France and Spain broke out in 1718, the French broke up these posts, but they were soon re-established. Down to 1720, the only Spanish inhabitants of Texas were in the missions, but in that year the Spanish government ordered the transportation of 400 families from the Canaries to Texas, but only thirteen families arrived that year and settled at San Antonio. This new population stimulated the missions to greater efforts. A Spanish governor of Texas was appointed. The population of Texas increased but slowly. As late as 1744 it did not exceed 1,500 souls. That province remained in the possession of Spain until the independence of Mexico was achieved, and it was part of that republic until it won its own independence in 1836.

War was begun by Great Britain against Spain in 1739, and Admiral Vernon was sent with a squadron to act against the Spanish dominions in the West Indies. He sailed from Jamaica with six ships, attacked Porto Bello (Nov. 21), and captured it. He blew up the castle and fortifications there and returned to Jamaica. The next year a great fleet was despatched to reinforce Vernon, who held possession of Porto Bello and Chagres, on the Atlantic side of the Isthmus of Panama, depots for all merchandise destined for the Pacific coast. The fleet conveyed an army of 12,000 men, led by General Cathcart, and the number of seamen amounted to 15,000. The army was composed of British regulars, battalions from the American colonies, and negroes from Jamaica — the greatest armament ever seen in the West Indies. The second in command of the troops was Sir Alexander Spottswood (*q. v.*), formerly governor of Virginia. The expedition met with disaster. While the fleet, with the soldiers yet on board the transports, was blockading Carthagena, the yellow fever broke out among them with great fury. Cathcart and Spottswood perished by the disease, and the command devolved on General Wentworth, who could not agree with Vernon. After several unsuccessful attacks upon

the city, the enterprise was abandoned, with immense loss, chiefly through sickness. Additional troops were sent from Massachusetts, and, with them, Vernon sailed for Cuba, but was unsuccessful. A fleet under Anson, which had been sent to the Pacific to repeat the exploits of Drake on the American coast, was equally unsuccessful. England then found herself (1742) threatened with a war with France. The war, really begun through the resolution of British merchants to force a trade with Spanish America, after spreading first to Europe and then to India, and adding nearly $150,000,000 to the British national debt, was brought to a close by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in the autumn of 1748.

"The position and strength of the countries occupied by the Americans," said Grimaldi, the Spanish minister, in 1769, "excites a just alarm for the rich Spanish possessions on their borders. They have already introduced their grain and rice into our colonies by a commerce of interlopers. If this introduction should be legalized and extended to other objects of commerce, it would effectually increase the power and prosperity of a neighbor already too formidable. Moreover, should this neighbor separate from its metropolis, it would assume the republican form of government—and a republic is a government dangerous, from the wisdom, the consistency, and the solidity of the measures which it would adopt for executing such projects of conquest as it would naturally form." This was the reply of the Spanish minister to a suggestion of establishing free-trade in America. Grimaldi's fears were prophetic.

During the Revolutionary War the Spanish Court was more hostile to the American cause than any other in Europe, for it was seen that encouragement to the revolt might hasten the independence of the Spanish-American colonies. Spain was not only hostile in principle, but was willing to be actively meddlesome in checking the good offices of France towards the United States. Soon after the arrival in Philadelphia, in 1778, of the first French minister, a Spanish emissary (Juan de Miralles) appeared there, without any authority, but was received as a friend and diplomatic agent of Spain by the unsuspecting Congress. He was only a spy. France had pressed Spain to join her in helping the Americans, but the latter had steadily refused, and when a despatch announcing the treaty reached Madrid the government was amazed, and saw spectres of colonial losses in the near future. Florida Blanca, the Spanish minister, suspected the good faith of the French; and when in April (1778) the French ambassador at Madrid asked him at what time Spain would take part in the war against Great Britain, he burst out into a tirade against the French policy. "The American deputies," he said, "are treated like the Roman consuls, to whom the kings of the East came to ask support." Blanca soon began the meditation of intrigues with Great Britain to crush or reduce the growing power of the United States.

Early in 1779 the Spanish Court offered to be a mediator between France and Great Britain. Pending this affair the French minister (Gerard) had urged the Continental Congress to fix what terms of peace they would accept and to appoint ministers authorized to negotiate. The Spanish offer was at first evaded and then rejected by Great Britain, when the Spanish Court published a manifesto, which was equivalent to a declaration of war against England, and so, indirectly, gave aid to the United States. France, financially weak, now wished for peace, and therefore the minister suggested to Congress measures for securing it.

In 1795 Thomas Pinckney was sent on a special mission to Spain, where he negotiated a treaty which settled a long-pending dispute concerning the Spanish boundary and the navigation of the Mississippi River. This treaty was signed at Madrid by Thomas Pinckney and El Principe de la Paz on Oct. 20, 1795. It fixed the Florida boundary at lat. 31° N., between the Mississippi and the Apalachicola, and east of the Apalachicola a line from the junction of the Flint to the head of the St. Mary, and thence by that river to the sea. The navigation of the Mississippi was to be free to both parties throughout its entire extent. The Americans were to enjoy a right of deposit at New Orleans for three years, at the end of which period either this privi-

lege was to be continued, or an equivalent establishment was to be assigned them at some other convenient point on the lower Mississippi. Neither party was to make alliances with the Indian tribes living within the territories of the other, nor was either party to allow its Indians to carry hostilities into the territories of the other. It made stipulations concerning commerce and neutral rights, and a board of commissioners was provided for to liquidate losses on the part of the Americans in consequence of illegal captures by Spanish cruisers, such losses to be paid by the Spanish crown.

The rising of the people of the Spanish-American provinces to secure their political independence of Spain began soon after the royal family of Portugal abandoned Europe and took refuge in Brazil in 1807. The rising began in Buenos Ayres, Venezuela, and Chile. In 1810 Mexico revolted, but did not secure its independence until 1821. The other states followed at various intervals, Bolivia, in 1824, being the last. The people of the United States naturally sympathized with these movements. When the diplomatic appropriation bill came up in Congress, March 24, 1818, Henry Clay moved to insert an appropriation for a minister to the new South American republic of La Plata. Early in the session of 1819 he proposed the acknowledgment of the South American republics, but it was considered premature. He brought the question before Congress again early in 1821, when the House of Representatives adopted resolutions to that effect. In his annual message (Dec. 3, 1821), President Monroe called the attention of Congress to these republics, suggesting that they were really independent of Spain and deserved acknowledgment. In accordance with these suggestions, a resolution was offered in the House of Representatives in January, 1822, for recognizing the independence of Mexico and five provinces of South America formerly under the dominion of Spain. The vote in the House in favor was nearly unanimous, and $100,000 were appropriated to defray the expenses of envoys to those republics, who were soon afterwards appointed by the President. Before these States had assumed a permanent shape, their independence was formally acknowledged by the United States, openly and boldly, in the face of the world. This measure was proposed by President Monroe in a special message, March 8, 1822. See MONROE, JAMES.

On March 8, 1895, the United States mail-ship *Alliança*, on her homeward voyage from Colon to New York, when 6 miles from the coast of Cuba, was repeatedly fired upon by a Spanish gunboat with solid shot. The Windward Passage, where this took place, is the usual highway for vessels plying between ports of the United States and the Caribbean Sea. Captain Crossman, of the *Alliança*, paid no attention to the gunboat and escaped the Spanish vessel. Secretary of State Gresham at once cabled Minister Taylor at Madrid that this government must demand a prompt apology from Spain. The general position taken by the United States was in accordance with the following resolution passed by the Senate in June, 1858: "Any molestation by force or show of force on the part of a foreign power of an American vessel on the high seas in time of peace is in derogation of the sovereignty of the United States." The Spanish minister at Washington complicated the matter somewhat by his intemperate utterances to newspaper men, declaring that Captain Crossman must have dreamed that he saw a gunboat. For a time the affair promised serious complications, but on proofs of the occurrences being furnished, Spain apologized.

Spain, TREATY WITH. Under Article 5 of the protocol (for text see CUBA), the following were appointed commissioners to negotiate peace:

On the part of the United States: William R. Day, of Ohio, ex-Secretary of State; Cushman K. Davis, of Minnesota, United States Senator; William P. Frye, of Maine, United States Senator; George Gray, of Delaware, United States Senator; Whitelaw Reid, of New York.

On the part of Spain: Eugenio Montero Rios, president of the Senate; Buenaventura de Abarzuza, W. R. de Villa Urrutia, Gen. R. Cerero, J. de Garnica.

The commission held its first session in Paris on Oct. 1, 1898, at 8.45 P.M., and Dec. 10 the treaty was signed by all the commissioners. It was ratified by the United

States Senate on Feb. 6, 1899, by a vote of 57 to 27.

The President signed the treaty Feb. 10, and it was transmitted to Spain and received the signature of the Queen Regent March 17. The copy of the treaty belonging to the United States was received here early in April, and on April 11 following the official exchange of ratifications the President issued his proclamation of peace, which was in the following terms:

"Whereas, a treaty of peace between the United States of America and her Majesty, the Queen Regent of Spain, in the name of her august son, Don Alfonso XIII., was concluded and signed by their respective plenipotentiaries at Paris on the tenth day of December, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, the original of which, in the Spanish language, is word for word as follows:

[Here text of treaty is included.]

"And, whereas, the said convention has been duly ratified on both parts, and the ratifications of the two governments were exchanged in the city of Washington on the eleventh day of April, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine:

"Now, therefore be it known, that I, William McKinley, President of the United States of America, have caused the said convention to be made public, to the end that the same and every article and clause thereof may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof.

"In witness wherof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

"Done at the city of Washington, this eleventh day of April, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine, and of the independence of the United States the one hundred and twenty-third.

"WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

"By the President:

"JOHN HAY, Secretary of State."

THE TREATY.

"The United States of America and her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain, in the name of her august son, Don Alfonso XIII., desiring to end the state of war now existing between the two countries, have for that purpose appointed as plenipotentiaries:

"The President of the United States:

"William R. Day, Cushman K. Davis, William P. Frye, George Gray, and Whitelaw Reid, citizens of the United States.

"And her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain:

"Don Eugenio Montero Rios, president of the Senate; Don Buenaventura de Abarzuza, Senator of the kingdom and ex-minister of the crown; Don José de Garnica, deputy to the Cortes and associate justice of the Supreme Court; Don Wenceslao Ramirez de Villa Urrutia, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at Brussels, and Don Rafael Cerero, General of Division.

"Who, having assembled in Paris and having exchanged their full powers, which were found to be in due and proper form, have, after discussion of the matters before them, agreed upon the following articles:

"Article 1. Spain relinquishes all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba.

"And as the island is, upon its evacuation by Spain, to be occupied by the United States, the United States will, so long as such occupation shall last, assume and discharge the obligations that may under international law result from the fact of its occupation for the protection of life and property.

"Art. 2. Spain cedes to the United States the island of Porto Rico and other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies, and the island of Guam, in the Mariannes or Ladrones.

"Art. 3. Spain cedes to the United States the archipelago known as the Philippine Islands, and comprehending the islands lying within the following lines:

"A line running from west to east along or near the twentieth parallel of north latitude, and through the middle of the navigable channel of Bachti, from the one hundred and eighteenth to the one hundred and twenty-seventh degree, meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence along the one hundred and twenty-seventh degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the parallel of four degrees and forty-five minutes north latitude, thence along the parallel of four degrees and forty-five minutes north latitude to its

intersection with the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes east of Greenwich, thence along the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes east of Greenwich to the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes north, thence along the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes north to its intersection with the one hundred and sixteenth degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence by a direct line to the intersection of the tenth degree parallel of north latitude with the one hundred and eighteenth degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, and thence along the one hundred and eighteenth degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the point of beginning.

"The United States will pay to Spain the sum of $20,000,000 within three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty.

"Art. 4. The United States will, for ten years from the date of exchange of ratifications of the present treaty, admit Spanish ships and merchandise to the ports of the Philippine Islands on the same terms as ships and merchandise of the United States.

"Art. 5. The United States will, upon the signature of the present treaty, send back to Spain, at its own cost, the Spanish soldiers taken as prisoners of war on the capture of Manila by the American forces. The arms of the soldiers in question shall be restored to them.

"Spain will, upon the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, proceed to evacuate the Philippines, as well as the island of Guam, on terms similar to those agreed upon by the commissioners appointed to arrange for the evacuation of Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies under the protocol of Aug. 12, 1898, which is to continue in force till its provisions are completely executed.

"The time within which the evacuation of the Philippine Islands and Guam shall be completed shall be fixed by the two governments. Stands of colors, uncaptured war-vessels, small-arms, guns of all calibres, with their carriages and accessories, powder, ammunition, live-stock, and materials and supplies of all kinds belonging to the land and naval forces of Spain in the Philippines and Guam remain the property of Spain. Pieces of heavy ordnance, exclusive of field artillery, in the fortifications and coast defences shall remain in their emplacements for the term of six months, to be reckoned from the exchange of ratifications of the treaty; and the United States may in the mean time purchase such material from Spain if a satisfactory agreement between the two governments on the subject shall be reached.

"Art. 6. Spain will, upon the signature of the present treaty, release all prisoners of war and all persons detained or imprisoned for political offences in connection with the insurrections in Cuba and the Philippines and the war with the United States.

"Reciprocally the United States will release all persons made prisoners of war by the American forces, and will undertake to obtain the release of all Spanish prisoners in the hands of the insurgents in Cuba and the Philippines.

"The government of the United States will at its own cost return to Spain, and the government of Spain will at its own cost return to the United States, Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, according to the situation of their respective homes, prisoners released or caused to be released by them, respectively, under this article.

"Art. 7. The United States and Spain mutually relinquish all claims for indemnity, national and individual, of every kind, of either government, or of its citizens or subjects, against the other government which may have arisen since the beginning of the late insurrection in Cuba and prior to the exchange of ratifications of the present treaty, including all claims for indemnity for the cost of the war. The United States will adjudicate and settle the claims of its citizens against Spain relinquished in this article.

"Art. 8. In conformity with the provisions of Arts. 1, 2, and 3 of this treaty, Spain relinquishes in Cuba and cedes in Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies, in the island of Guam, and in the Philippine Archipelago all the buildings, wharves, barracks, forts, structures, public highways, and other immovable property which in conformity with law belong

to the public domain and as such belong to the crown of Spain.

"And it is hereby declared that the relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, to which the preceding paragraph refers, cannot in any respect impair the property or rights which by law belong to the peaceful possession of property of all kinds of provinces, municipalities, public or private establishments, ecclesiastical or civic bodies, or any other associations having legal capacity to acquire and possess property in the aforesaid territories, renounced or ceded, or of private individuals, of whatsoever nationality such individuals may be.

"The aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, includes all documents exclusively referring to the sovereignty relinquished or ceded that may exist in the archives of the peninsula. Where any document in such archives only in part relates to said sovereignty, a copy of such part will be furnished whenever it shall be requested. Like rules shall be reciprocally observed in favor of Spain in respect of documents in the archives of the islands above referred to.

"In the aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, are also included such rights as the crown of Spain and its authorities possess in respect of the official archives and records, executive as well as judicial, in the islands above referred to, which relate to said islands or the rights and property of their inhabitants. Such archives and records shall be carefully preserved, and private persons shall, without distinction, have the right to require, in accordance with the law, authenticated copies of the contracts, wills, and other instruments forming part of notarial protocols or files, or which may be contained in the executive or judicial archives, be the latter in Spain or in the islands aforesaid.

"Art. 9. Spanish subjects, natives of the peninsula, residing in the territory over which Spain by the present treaty relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty, may remain in such territory or may remove therefrom, retaining in either event all their rights of property, including the right to sell or dispose of such property or of its proceeds; and they shall also have the right to carry on their industry, commerce, and professions, being subject in respect thereof to such laws as are applicable to other foreigners. In case they remain in the territory they may preserve their allegiance to the crown of Spain by making, before a court of record, within a year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, a declaration of their decision to preserve such allegiance; in default of which declaration they shall be held to have renounced it and to have adopted the nationality of the territory in which they may reside.

"The civil rights and political status of the native inhabitants of the territories hereby ceded to the United States shall be determined by the Congress.

"Art. 10. The inhabitants of the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be secured in the free exercise of their religion.

"Art. 11. The Spaniards residing in the territories over which Spain by this treaty cedes or relinquishes her sovereignty shall be subject in matters civil as well as criminal to the jurisdiction of the courts of the country wherein they reside, pursuant to the ordinary laws governing the same; and they shall have the right to appear before such courts and to pursue the same course as citizens of the country to which the courts belong.

"Art. 12. Judicial proceedings pending at the time of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty in the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be determined according to the following rules:

"First. Judgments rendered either in civil suits between private individuals, or in criminal matters, before the date mentioned, and with respect to which there is no recourse or right of review under the Spanish law, shall be deemed to be final, and shall be executed in due form by competent authority in the territory within which such judgments should be carried out.

"Second. Civil suits between private individuals which may on the date mentioned be undetermined shall be prosecuted to judgment before the court in which they may then be pending, or in the court that may be substituted therefor.

"Third. Criminal actions pending on the date mentioned before the Supreme

Court of Spain against citizens of the territory which by this treaty ceases to be Spanish shall continue under its jurisdiction until final judgment; but, such judgment having been rendered, the execution thereof shall be committed to the competent authority of the place in which the case arose.

"Art. 13. The rights of property secured by copyrights and patents acquired by Spaniards in the island of Cuba, and in Porto Rico, the Philippines, and other ceded territories, at the time of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, shall continue to be respected. Spanish scientific, literary, and artistic works not subversive of public order in the territories in question shall continue to be admitted free of duty into such territories for the period of ten years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.

"Art. 14. Spain shall have the power to establish consular officers in the ports and places of the territories the sovereignty over which has either been relinquished or ceded by the present treaty.

"Art. 15. The government of each country will, for the term of ten years, accord to the merchant vessels of the other country the same treatment in respect to all port charges, including entrance and clearance dues, light dues, and tonnage duties, as it accords to its own merchant vessels not engaged in the coastwise trade.

"This article may at any time be terminated on six months' notice given by either government to the other.

"Art. 16. It is understood that any obligations assumed in this treaty by the United States with respect to Cuba are limited to the time of its occupancy thereof; but it will upon the termination of such occupancy advise any government established in the island to assume the same obligations.

"Art. 17. The present treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain; and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington within six months from the date hereof, or earlier if possible.

"In faith whereof we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty and have hereunto affixed our seals.

"Done in duplicate at Paris, the tenth day of December, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-eight."

[SEAL.]

"WILLIAM R. DAY,
"CUSHMAN K. DAVIS,
"WILLIAM P. FRYE,
"GEORGE GRAY,
"WHITELAW REID,
"EUGENIO MONTERO RIOS,
"B. DE ABARZUZA,
"J. DE GARNICA,
"W. R. DE VILLA URRUTIA,
"RAFAEL CERERO."

SPAIN, WAR WITH

Spain, WAR WITH. For events leading to the war between the United States and Spain in 1898, the reader is referred to the article on Cuba. Other details will be found under the titles of persons and places that became conspicuous in the war. The following narrative of the military operations of the war is by Lieut.-Gen. Nelson A. Miles, commanding the United States army:

The recent war with Spain was the logical outcome of the conditions which existed in Cuba. It was evident, not only to this country but to all the world, that Spanish rule on this side of the ocean must necessarily cease, if peace and international harmony were to be preserved. The great Spanish nation of the sixteenth century, with its rich possessions encircling the globe, had so decayed in the nineteenth century as to be unfit in every way, physically and financially, to control not only Cuba but her remaining colonies. One by one, through the same misrule, Mexico and South-American states had found her yoke unbearable and had gained their independence, Spain thus losing these vast possessions and the large income derived from them. Cuba, termed "The Ever Faithful Isle," and Porto Rico remained. For more than a century Spain

had been a dying nation; while the effect of her rule, or rather misrule, in Cuba was a menace to the peace and good order not only of this country, but of every other country having any relations with the island.

While Spain was in possession of Florida, a succession of disagreeable events had occurred in connection with our commerce in the Gulf of Mexico, which involved great loss to us, and which so marred the relations between Spain and the republic that, after much controversy, Florida was finally ceded to the United States—largely as a matter of compensation to our country.

The Ten Years' War, with all its cruelty and horrors, had ceased purely through the physical exhaustion of the insurgents, only to be recommenced, with renewed vigor, with the insurrection which had been in progress two years at the outbreak of the late war. The voice of civilization demanded intervention. The *Virginius* affair, involving the massacre of several of our citizens and others, had not faded from the memory of our people; nor was the final adjudication of that incident satisfactory. The summary execution of the victims, under the circumstances, was directly contrary to treaty obligations and to justice.

The character of the war waged by Spain against the Cuban insurgents was cruel, and often barbarous, despite the warnings given by our nation that it should be conducted in a humane manner. It was becoming a war of extermination. "The Pearl of the Antilles" was ruined, and its population reduced many hundreds of thousands by death, in many cases from starvation. With a forbearance that, perhaps, no other nation would have shown, we had preserved the strictest neutrality at great cost, with much loss in our trade relations.

On Feb. 15, 1898, the world was startled and horrified by the blowing up of the battle-ship *Maine*, of the United States navy, in the harbor of Havana, with the loss of 253 of her crew. It does not matter now how this was done; whether or not any Spanish official was concerned in the destruction of this magnificent ship, nor how it occurred; nevertheless, the disaster caused great consternation throughout our land, and from that moment Spanish rule in Cuba was doomed. The whole nation with one voice demanded its termination. Party feelings were forgotten, and on March 9 Congress appropriated $50,000,000 for national defence. With this large amount the executive department was authorized to make preparations for the impending war. The navy department succeeded in securing large quantities of munitions of war, including a considerable number of rapid-fire guns and ammunition, some third or fourth rate vessels, and quite a number of others that were used as an auxiliary naval force; yet, such priceless jewels are the modern appliances of war that, even with the large amount of gold available, our government was unable to purchase a single battle-ship, a first-class cruiser, or a modern high-power gun of the greatest destructive power. It requires years to build these great engines of war, and they cannot be obtained in an emergency.

On April 25 Congress declared war, making the declaration that war had existed from April 21.

Congress had been much more generous in its appropriations for the navy than for the army, and much progress had already been made in the construction of battle-ships and cruisers. At the time of the breaking out of the war, indeed, the navy was in fairly effective condition, except for a shortage in ammunition, and it proved to be in every way superior to the Spanish navy. The magnificent results of the operations and the splendid record of the navy during the war were eminently satisfactory.

Although, for many years, Congress had been urged to make appropriations for the adequate protection of our sea-coasts, it had been so tardy in doing so that, when the war broke out, the condition of our coast defences was far from satisfactory. A very few modern guns of high power had been placed in position. It is true that much work was in progress, but it takes years to construct guns and to build emplacements for them, so that at that time it required many months still to accomplish the necessary results. Suddenly attacked by a first-class naval power, most of our sea-

ports would have been practically defenceless.

The army, of 25,000 men, was doing duty in various parts of the country, where for many years it had paved the way for the advance of civilization, and had afforded constant protection to the citizens on the frontier. It was, as far as practicable, well trained and in excellent condition. It was fairly well armed and equipped, and it was ready for any emergency, its officers and men having been hardened by service and training in the West. It was, as far as intelligence, physical excellence, discipline, and devotion to duty are concerned, unexcelled by any military body of equal numbers in the world. Such a force, however, was not even sufficient to have properly guarded our sea-coasts, in the event of a war with a strong naval power.

The militia, composed of the national guards of the several States, was, as a rule, inefficient, and, as a body, could practically be disregarded. Its arms and equipment were obsolete and unfit for use by troops fighting an army properly organized and equipped. Never, in the history of the country, was the necessity so obvious to the people for proper legislation for the reorganization of the regular army, as well as of the national guard. Small-arms using smokeless powder had been manufactured for the use of the regular troops, but there was not a sufficient reserve supply of these arms to equip even the small army called into service at the time of its mobilization. Our field artillery, our siege-guns, and all our heavier guns were constructed for, and used, black powder. This in time of action proved to be a great disadvantage; and, in fact, the regiments of volunteers which were present with our army in Cuba had to be withdrawn from the firing-line on account of the obsolete firearms with which they were armed, while the field artillery was subject to the same disadvantage. Had our field artillery been of modern type, using smokeless powder, there is no question that its proper employment would have produced much more effective results. The same disadvantage was experienced by the navy during its attack on the fortifications at San Juan, Porto Rico, when the smoke from the guns to a great extent prevented efficient firing.

It is safe to say that, with an army of 75,000 men properly equipped, at the time of the declaration of war, peace could have been secured without requiring a single volunteer to leave the country, and thus the necessity of the enormous volunteer army, and the expense and inconvenience incident to its organization and maintenance, could have been avoided. In fact, only 52,000 men were landed on Spanish soil before the peace protocol was signed.

The President was authorized to call for volunteers by act of Congress approved April 22, 1898, and, under the act approved April 26, 1898, authority was given to increase the regular army to 62,527 men, while the act approved May 11, 1898, authorized the enlistment of 10,000 "immunes," to be organized into ten regiments, and of 3,500 engineers, to be organized into a brigade of three regiments.

In the volunteer act of April 22 there was the following provision: "The President may authorize the Secretary of War to organize companies, troops, battalions, or regiments, possessing special qualifications, from the nation at large, not to exceed 3,000 men, under such rules and regulations, including the appointment of the officers thereof, as may be prescribed by the Secretary of War"; and under that authority the 1st, 2d, and 3d regiments of volunteer cavalry were organized.

The first two acts, going into effect almost at the same time, had a bad effect upon the enlistment of the regular army up to its authorized strength. Volunteers naturally preferred their own organizations complete, and it thus became difficult to enlist men in the regular service, which it was most essential to have rapidly brought up to its authorized strength. Enlistments, therefore, were necessarily slow, while at the same time most of the recruits thus received were utterly untrained and unfitted for immediate service. It was decided to permit the regiments of the national guard to go into the service practically as they existed at the time, but they were not so mustered in. A large percentage of the trained officers and men, either through

business and professional obligations or for other reasons, were unable to go, and were replaced by men untrained and unfitted for the service—in some cases, it is stated, not over one out of three going with their regiments. With such a condition of affairs, the difficulty of getting an effective force into the field, properly trained and equipped, was considerable. A great rush was made for appointments to commissions in this volunteer army. Many officers were unfit for the positions given them, thus adding materially to the delay in bringing the force to its necessary state of discipline and effectiveness.

I had previously recommended that 50,000 volunteers should be immediately called for, who were to be thoroughly equipped; and, shortly afterwards, that 40,000 more should be enlisted, to act as reserves.

On April 23 the President called for 125,000 volunteers, and, on May 25 he made a further call for 75,000 more. These, with the 10,000 immunes, 3,500 engineers, and the troops "possessing special qualifications," added to the regular army brought up to its full strength, gave a total force of 278,000 men.

In order to secure a proper uniformity in equipment, and to promote the efficiency of the troops, the following letter was written and orders published:

"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
"WASHINGTON, D. C., *April 26, 1898.*

"SIR,—I regard it of the highest importance that the troops called into service by the President's proclamation be thoroughly equipped, organized, and disciplined for field service. In order that this may be done with the least delay, they ought to be in camp approximately sixty days in their States, as so many of the States have made no provision for their State militia, and not one is fully equipped for field service. After being assembled, organized, and sworn into service of the United States, they will require uniforms, tentage, complete camp equipage, arms, and ammunition, and a full supply of stationery, including blank-books and reports for the quartermaster's, commissary, medical, and ordnance departments. They will also require complete equipment of ordnance, quartermaster's, commissary, and medical supplies, hospital appliances, transportation, including ambulances, stretchers, etc. The officers and non-commissioned officers will have to be appointed and properly instructed in their duties and responsibilities, and have some instruction in tactical exercises, guard duties, etc., all of which is of the highest importance to the efficiency and health of the command. This preliminary work should be done before the troops leave their States. While this is being done, the general officers and staff officers can be appointed and properly instructed, large camps of instruction can be judiciously selected, ground rented, and stores collected. At the end of sixty days the regiments, batteries, and troops can be brigaded and formed into divisions and corps, and proper commanding generals assigned, and this great force may be properly equipped, moulded, and organized into an effective army with the least possible delay.

"Very respectfully,
"NELSON A. MILES,
"Major-General, Commanding.
"*The Secretary of War.*"

"General Orders, No. 54.
"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
"ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
"WASHINGTON, *May 25, 1898.*

"The following standard of supplies and equipment for field service is published for the information and guidance of troops in the military service of the United States. The allowance is regarded as the minimum for field service:

"Headquarters of an army corps.—Three wagons for baggage, etc., or eight pack-mules; one two-horse wagon; one two-horse spring-wagon; ten extra saddle-horses for contingent wants; two wall-tents for commanding general; one wall-tent for every two officers of his staff.

"Headquarters of a division.—Two wagons for baggage, etc., or five pack-mules; one two-horse spring-wagon; one two-horse wagon; five extra saddle-horses for contingent wants; one wall-tent for commanding general; one wall-tent for every two officers of his staff.

"Headquarters of a brigade.—One wagon for baggage, or five pack-mules; one two-

horse spring-wagon; two extra saddle-horses for contingent wants; one wall-tent for the commanding general; one wall-tent for every two officers of his staff.

"Allowance of transportation for regiment of cavalry, forty-nine wagons or 144 pack animals.

rations per man; 100 rounds of ammunition per soldier.

"The utensils for each troop of cavalry must not exceed 350 lbs.

"The weight of load per aparejo must never exceed 250 lbs., and should, if possible, be less than 200 lbs.

TROOP OF CAVALRY, COMPANY OF INFANTRY, OR LIGHT BATTERY.

Supplies.	Troop of Cavalry.	Company of Infantry.	Light Battery.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
Field rations, 10 days: Cavalry, 100 men; infantry, 106; artillery, 125	3,640	3,858	4,550
Ammunition, 100 rounds: Cavalry, 100 men; infantry, 106 men	725	769	....
Officers' baggage and supplies	250	250	250
Tentage (7 conical wall for cavalry and infantry, each, 9 for light battery)	854	854	1,098
Grain for animals, 10 days, 6 lbs.; Cavalry, 115; infantry, 12; artillery, 126	6,900	720	7,560
Utensils for each company mess	350	350	350
Horseshoes, nails, tools, and medicines for cavalry and artillery horses	300	....	325
Soldiers' baggage: Each 1 blanket, 1 poncho, 1 extra suit of undergarments, and 1 piece shelter-tent	1,662	1,761	2,078
Total	14,681	8,562	16,211

By command of Major-General Miles:

H. C. CORBIN, Adjutant-General.

"Allowance of transportation for battery light artillery, four wagons.

"Allowance of transportation for regiment of infantry, twenty-five wagons.

"Supplies to be carried in wagons per company: Ten days' field rations per man; 100 rounds of ammunition per soldier; 250 lbs. of officers' baggage and supplies; tentage; grain for animals; utensils for each company mess, not to exceed 350 lbs. for each troop, battery, or company; horseshoes, nails, tools, and medicine for cavalry horses, not to exceed 300 lbs. to each soldier or civilian employé (compactly rolled in one piece of shelter-tent), one blanket, one poncho, and one extra suit of undergarments.

"Whenever the amount of rations or grain varies from the above, the weight to be carried per six-mule wagon may be increased or diminished, but should not exceed 4,000 lbs., and for four-mule wagon 3,000 lbs., and if possible should be less per wagon.

"Whenever obtainable on line of march, full forage will be allowed all animals, the rate of purchase to be regulated by the quartermaster's department.

"To be carried on the person or horse: One overcoat, one piece of shelter-tent, fifty rounds of rifle or carbine, and twenty-four rounds of revolver ammunition.

"Supplies to be carried on pack-mules for one troop of cavalry: Five days' field

"General Orders, No. 57.

"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,

"ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE,

"WASHINGTON, *May 30, 1898.*

"After a prolonged period of peace our army is once more called upon to engage in war in the cause of justice and humanity. To bring the military forces to the highest state of efficiency and most speedily accomplish what is expected should be the earnest effort and call forth the best energies of all its members of whatsoever station.

"The laws and regulations which govern military bodies in civilized countries have been developed to their present perfection through the experience of hundreds of years, and the faithful observance of those laws and regulations is essential to the honor and efficiency of the army.

"All authority should be exercised with firmness, equity, and decorum on the part of superiors, and should be respected by implicit obedience and loyal support from subordinates.

"Every officer of whatever grade will, so far as may be in his power, guard and preserve the health and welfare of those under his charge. He must labor diligently and zealously to perfect himself and his subordinates in military drill, instruction, and discipline; and, above all, he must constantly endeavor, by precept and example, to maintain the highest char-

acter, to foster and stimulate that true soldierly spirit and patriotic devotion to duty which must characterize an effective army. The major-general commanding confidently trusts that every officer and soldier in the service of the republic, each in his proper sphere, will contribute his most zealous efforts to the end that the honor and character of the army may be preserved untarnished, and its best efforts crowned with success.

"This order is given upon a day sacred to the memory of the heroic dead, whose services and sacrifices afford us example and inspiration, and it is expected that all will be fully impressed with the sacred duty imposed upon the army by the government of our beloved country.

"By command of Major-General Miles,
"H. C. CORBIN, Adjutant-General."

The difficulty of obtaining clothing and equipment for so many men was soon apparent. In fact, the canvas and other articles necessary for these equipments had not at that time been manufactured, and it would take a long time to supply them; while even the cartridges necessary to fight battles with were not in the possession of the government. Had our troops been available for immediate service, this fact alone would have rendered such service impossible.

Much time was necessarily lost for these reasons, affording Spain the opportunity to concentrate her troops in Cuba and Porto Rico, to supply them with food and munitions of war, to take steps to strengthen the defences of her seaports, and to render them as able as possible to withstand a siege; all of which things were done as far as lay in the power of such a government.

On April 15 the regular troops were ordered to be mobilized, the infantry being directed to proceed to Tampa, Mobile, and New Orleans, and the cavalry and light artillery to Chickamauga. A portion of the infantry, however, was afterwards stopped at Chickamauga, and went into camp there. These places were selected, as they were regarded as the most convenient points from which troops could be moved for an offensive campaign in Cuba, which it was intended to commence as soon as possible. The work of equipping and organizing the troops was hastened with all possible speed. This, however, was necessarily slow. Efforts were made to purchase supplies abroad, with only partial success, as supplies of this kind, owing to the great demand the world over in these days of large standing armies, were difficult to obtain.

The history of warfare shows that operations beyond the sea are at best most difficult to organize and to carry on successfully. With the exception of the expedition of General Scott during the Mexican War, and our limited experience in the War of the Rebellion, we had had no experience, and we were in every way utterly unprepared in the way of transports and appliances for embarking and disembarking artillery, transportation, horses, etc., which, when required to be done at difficult points, and when the landing is contested by an enemy, are matters of great difficulty, requiring exact and full preparation to be successful. Transports had to be purchased or hired and put in condition for the use of troops, animals, stores, etc. The climate of Cuba and Porto Rico being necessarily hot and enervating, and storms and hurricanes being liable to occur in the season during which these operations were to be carried on, it was of the utmost importance, for the safety and health of the troops, that proper arrangements should be made for feeding and clothing them, and that this object should have the most solicitous attention from the authorities.

The lessons taught by the expeditions made by the British in this section were of immense value. San Juan, in Porto Rico, had been attacked by Sir Ralph Abercrombie in 1795, unsuccessfully. He stated that the expedition had been undertaken too lightly, that he had found Porto Rico well supplied, and that there was powerful artillery there. Havana had been beseiged in 1762 by a large fleet, under Admiral Pocock, of the British navy, and a force of about 15,000 men under Lord Albemarle. This force was landed on June 5 in the same year. Havana surrendered after a siege on Aug. 13. It had been necessary to effect the reduction of the works, which were very strong, especially the Morro Castle, by regular approaches, and under very unfavorable cir-

cumstances. In this attack, about 5,000 troops from New England were used, yet two of the transports carrying them over were captured by the French, who were also at war with England at that time, about 500 of the Americans being taken with them. The losses of the British in this campaign were far greater from disease than from battle, being in all between 1,700 and 1,800 men, while the Spanish force opposed to them was about 28,000, or about twice the strength of the British. It is said, however, that at one time almost half the British force was on the sick report.

In 1553 the French occupied Santiago, evacuating it afterwards on the payment by the Spanish of $80,000 as a ransom. In October, 1662, a British fleet appeared off Santiago, and 900 men were landed at Aguadores, who, although opposed by the Spanish, marched on and seized Santiago. In July, 1741, a British fleet, under Admiral Vernon, sailed to Guantanamo, and a force of 5,000 men under General Wentworth, of the British army, was landed there.

At the commencement of the recent war, the general impression was that the Spanish were much stronger on the sea than they proved to be. In fact, their want of energy was most remarkable. Even with the vessels that they had, handled by such sailors as the British or our own, they could have done untold damage to us. With their fleets free to act and their whereabouts unknown, the embarkation of a large number of troops at best was hazardous. Good judgment demanded that, before such operations should be commenced, these fleets should be destroyed or captured, and it was my opinion that no extended movement should take place until this was done, as was indicated in the following letter which I wrote to the Secretary of War:

"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
"WASHINGTON, D. C., *April 18, 1898.*

"SIR,—Referring to my former letters concerning healthful camps for the troops and the uncertainty of Congress requiring an army to move to Cuba at this season of the year, I would respectfully call attention to the letter of the surgeon-general of the army, dated Washington, March 25, of this year, as to the danger of putting an army in Cuba during what is known as the 'rainy' or 'sickly' season. That opinion is also confirmed by reports of Dr. James Guiteras, of Philadelphia, a well-known authority on yellow fever, and others.

"In my opinion it is extremely hazardous, and I think it would be injudicious, to put an army on that island at this season of the year, as it would undoubtedly be decimated by the deadly disease, to say nothing of having to cope with some 80,000 troops, the remnant of 214,000, that have become acclimated, and that are equipped with 183 guns. And still another element of extreme danger would be to place an army there with the possibility of our own navy not being able to keep the waters between our own territory and that island clear of hostile ships or fleets.

"By mobilizing our force and putting it in healthful camps and using such force as might be necessary to harass the enemy and doing them the greatest injury with the least possible loss to ourselves, if our navy is superior to theirs, in my judgment, we can compel the surrender of the army on the island of Cuba with very little loss of life, and possibly avoid the spread of yellow fever over our own country.

"There is still time, if this is favorably considered, to put a small force of regular troops, number approximately 18,000 men, in healthful camps until such time as they can be used on the island of Cuba with safety.

"Very respectfully,
"NELSON A. MILES,
"Major-General, Commanding.
"*The Secretary of War.*"

The plan of campaign was carefully considered. The wet season, which would be especially dangerous to the lives of those not acclimated, and would render the movements of troops more difficult, was near at hand. It was utterly impossible to organize an army and equip it properly before that season commenced. Spain's army in Cuba was strong, well organized, and seasoned after long fighting with the insurgents. I was ordered, however, on May 9, to take 70,000 men to Cuba, for the purpose of commencing

hostilities immediately, and I sent the necessary orders for the movement of the advance corps, and instructions as to its landing on the north coast of Cuba; and supplies for ninety days for the men and thirty days for the animals were ordered concentrated at Tampa, Fla. It is with great reluctance that one hesitates to accept the command of an army of that magnitude in the field; yet, knowing the condition of the troops, the strength of the enemy, and the near approach of the sickly season in a district infested with yellow fever, I considered it my duty not only to the troops, whose lives must necessarily be sacrificed, but to the country, to explain fully to the highest authority the serious objections to such a movement at that time, and also to express my regret that I felt called upon to state such objections. The army was enthusiastic, composed of the best young men of the land, brave and resolute, but, outside of the regular regiments, not properly instructed and very insufficiently equipped, as far as proper clothing, tentage, camp equipage and transportation, hospital supplies, and all other munitions of war were concerned.

The most serious objection, however, to the movement of such an army, but partly organized, to encounter an enemy well equipped and acclimated, was the fact that, after assembling the amount of ammunition required by the troops going to Manila, and leaving a small amount for the troops necessary to guard the Atlantic coast, supporting the batteries, and to protect it against the possibility of any force landing on our shores, there was not ammunition enough left in the United States to last an army of 70,000 men in one hour's serious battle. Although the cartridge factories were making the only kind of ammunition that could be used by the troops with the Springfield and Krag-Jörgenson rifles, it was impossible for them to manufacture a sufficient amount to equip an army of the size mentioned to encounter a foreign army of equal strength in less than sixty days. These facts I reluctantly presented, and it was as reluctantly decided that the army must not move until it was ready. The feeling at that time in the country was one of impatience, amounting almost to impetuosity, and the cry of "On to Havana!" was similar to that of "On to Richmond!" in June of 1861.

In the public journals of that time may be found the following statement from myself in regard to this vital question:

"Regarding the matter of invading Cuba, General Miles says: 'With regard to the invasion of Cuba, I have nothing to say, except that the United States will in due time bring Cuba under its control by judicious methods and without useless waste of life. The United States is too great, too strong, and too powerful to commit any foolish act in connection with the proposed invasion. As for myself, I have only to say that no officer is fit to command the troops who from any motive whatever would needlessly risk the life of a single soldier either from disease or the bullets of the enemy. I have never sacrificed the lives of the men under my command, and I do not propose to subject them to any unnecessary risks in the present campaign.'"

With a properly equipped army ready for action before the bad season sets in, we could have divided Cuba into two or more sections, occupying the greater portion of the country, placing the troops in healthful localities, thus enabling the insurgents to organize and become thoroughly equipped, and simplifying the problem; and, with the Spanish navy once cleared from the seas, and the coast thoroughly patrolled by our vessels, the Spanish forces must have yielded in a few months. The investment of Havana could have been effected at our leisure, and that city forced to surrender, in all probability, with inconsiderable loss.

Troops not being ready, and as the necessary army would not be available for at least two months at best, it was decided to send smaller expeditions to the coast of Cuba and supply the insurgents with arms, ammunition, and rations. Several expeditions were organized and sent out with this object in view—those organized under Colonel Hall, Capt. J. J. O'Donnell, Lieutenant Crofton, and Captain Dorst with good results, a large amount of arms, ammunition, and other supplies being successfully distributed. In addition to his other expeditions, on May

9, 1898, Captain Dorst left Tampa for Cuba. Going to Key West, he thence sailed north and passed to the north side of the island of New Providence, thence south to the northeast coast of Cuba, going into the small harbor of Banes, which had all the time been held by the Cuban insurgents. He remained there for five days, and succeeded in landing 7,500 rifles, a million cartridges, 5,000 uniforms, and a steamer-load of supplies. This was a great boon to General Garcia's troops, who had been valiantly contending against upwards of 30,000 Spanish troops located in the eastern portion of Cuba.

Another expedition, much stronger, to consist of 5,000 or 6,000 men, with a large amount of supplies, was directed to be organized and placed under the command of Gen. William R. Shafter. This expedition was to have landed on the south coast of Cuba, and, strongly convoyed by war-vessels, was to form a base of supplies for the insurgents. Important results were expected from it, and its organization was carried on as rapidly as possible; but shortly before it was ready to sail information was received that Cervera's fleet had left Spain. This rendered the movement of the expedition very hazardous, besides which the navy needed all its ships-of-war to meet the enemy's fleet.

On May 30 it was finally ascertained that the Spanish fleet had taken refuge in the harbor of Santiago, and was there blockaded. In view of the supposed strength of the defences of the harbor and the presence of mines in the entrance, the navy reported it impossible to enter and destroy this fleet unless assisted by an army sufficiently strong to dislodge the troops guarding the entrance, they being thus enabled to take up the mines. The expedition above referred to was abandoned, and it was decided to organize another one of sufficient size to accomplish, in conjunction with our fleet, the capture or destruction of that of the enemy in the harbor of Santiago. General Shafter, being then the senior general officer at Tampa, was designated to command this expedition.

Urgent despatches came from Admiral Sampson, stating the necessity of immediately sending a force to capture the garrison. On June 6 he reported that he had silenced the forts and that if "10,000 men were here city and fleet could be ours within forty-eight hours. Every consideration demands immediate army movement. If delayed, city will be defended more strongly by guns taken from fleet."

The following day General Shafter was directed by the Secretary of War to sail immediately.

Later, on the same day, the same authority directed him, by order of the President, to sail at once with what force he had ready, provided that it was 10,000 strong.

On May 30 I left Washington for Tampa, arriving there early in the morning of June 1.

In order to utilize as far as possible the assistance of the Cuban insurgent forces in eastern Cuba, I sent the following communication to General Garcia on June 2:

"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
"IN THE FIELD, TAMPA, FLA., *June 2, 1898.*

"DEAR GENERAL,—I am very glad to have received your officers, General Enrique Collazo and Lieut.-Col. Carlos Hernandez, the latter of whom returns to-night with our best wishes for your success.

"It would be a very great assistance if you could have as large a force as possible in the vicinity of the harbor of Santiago de Cuba, and communicate any information, by signals, which Colonel Hernandez will explain to you, either to our navy or to our army on its arrival, which we hope will be before many days.

"It would also assist us very much if you could drive in and harass any Spanish troops near or in Santiago de Cuba, threatening or attacking them at all points, and preventing, by every means, any possible reinforcement coming to that garrison. While this is being done, and before the arrival of our army, if you can seize and hold any commanding position to the east or west of Santiago de Cuba, or both, that would be advantageous for the use of our artillery, it will be exceeding gratifying to us.

"With great respect and best wishes, I remain, very respectfully,

"NELSON A. MILES,
"Major-General, Commanding U. S. A.
"Lieutenant-General Garcia, Cuban Army."

Colonel Hernandez, one of General Garcia's staff-officers, left Key West with this letter on June 2; General Garcia received it on June 6, and I received his reply by cable on June 9, as follows:

"MOLE ST. NICHOLAS
(*via* WASHINGTON), *June 9, 1898.*

"*General Miles, Commanding U. S. A.:*

"Garcia's reply on June 6 to your letter of June 2:

"'Will take measures at once to carry out your recommendation, but concentration of force will require some time. Roads bad and Cubans scattered. Will march without delay. Santiago de Cuba well fortified with advanced intrenchments, but believe good artillery position can be taken. Spanish force approximates 12,000 between Santiago de Cuba and Guantanamo, 3,000 militia. Will maintain a Cuban force near Holguin to prevent sending reinforcements to Santiago.'

"The above given to me by Admiral Sampson to forward to you.

"ALLEN."

The following is an extract from a cable message from Admiral Sampson to the Secretary of the Navy, which was repeated to me at Tampa on June 12, for my information:

"MOLE ST. NICHOLAS, HAITI.

"General Miles's letter received through Colonel Hernandez on June 6. Garcia regards his wishes and suggestions as orders, and immediately will take measures to concentrate forces at the points indicated, but he is unable to do so as early as desired on account of his expedition to Banes Port, Cuba, but he will march without delay. All of his subordinates are ordered to assist to disembark the United States troops and to place themselves under orders Santiago de Cuba well fortified, with dvanced intrenchments, but he believes position for artillery can be taken as Miles desires. (Approximate) Twelve thousand (12,000) regulars and three thousand (3,000) militia between Santiago and Guantanamo. He has sent force in order to prevent aid going to Santiago from Holguin. Repeats every assurance of good-will, and desires to second plans.

"SAMPSON."

It will be observed that General Garcia regarded my requests as his orders, and promptly took steps to execute the plan of operations. He sent 3,000 men to check any movement of the 12,000 Spaniards stationed at Holguin. A portion of this latter force started to the relief of the garrison at Santiago, but was successfully checked and turned back by the Cuban forces under General Feria. General Garcia also sent 2,000 men, under Perez, to oppose the 6,000 Spaniards at Guantanamo, and they were successful in their object. He also sent 1,000 men, under General Rios, against the 6,000 men at Manzanillo. Of this garrison, 3,500 started to reinforce the garrison at Santiago, and were engaged in no less than thirty combats with the Cubans on their way before reaching Santiago. With an additional force of 5,000 men, General Garcia besieged the garrison of Santiago, taking up a strong position on the west side of the harbor, and he afterwards received Admiral Sampson and General Shafter at his camp near that place. He had troops in the rear, as well as on both sides of the garrison at Santiago before the arrival of our troops.

The expedition for Santiago was delayed at Tampa, on account of the reported presence along the northern coast of Cuba of some Spanish war-vessels, but it finally sailed on June 14.

As most of the regular army was included in this expedition, and on account of the importance of the enterprise, I desired to go with it, but was directed to return to Washington.

It cannot be denied that this expedition left in a very unsatisfactory condition, as regards accommodations on the transports for the men and animals, and the necessary facilities for landing troops. Fair weather, however, attended the expedition throughout the voyage, and the great discomfort and danger that would have been experienced in stormy weather was avoided.

Previous to the departure of the expedition the question of the best point and method of attack had been carefully considered, and I had obtained and furnished the commanding general with maps and photographs of the country.

Covered by the navy on June 22,

a landing was effected by part of the troops at Daiquiri, and on the following day the remainder were landed at Siboney. The distances to these points from Santiago were very short, that from Daiquiri being not over 16 miles, while the distance from Siboney was not over 10 miles. The roads, however, were very poor, and the movement of supplies and artillery was difficult.

The troops had been landed, largely by the navy, in a very short time, but the landing of artillery and general supplies was a much more difficult matter, the number of tugs, lighters, etc., being in every way insufficient. It was with great difficulty that enough supplies were landed for the absolute wants of the troops, while the necessity of providing for a number of refugees who had left Santiago made the conditions still worse.

The advance upon Santiago, the fights at Las Guasimas, El Caney, and San Juan, and the final surrender, have been described so often that it is unnecessary to go into detail regarding them. The bravery of our troops, the energy and fortitude displayed by them under the most adverse circumstances, are a monument to their character.

The landing of the troops and supplies at Daiquiri and Siboney, including over 2,000 animals, was successfully accomplished; and was followed by the cautious and judicious advance of the leading division under General Lawton, without loss. The dash forward at Las Guasimas caused some disappointment, owing to the serious loss suffered, particularly that of the gallant young men who fell in that first encounter; yet the fortitude and courage displayed by our troops on that occasion was most commendable.

The sharp, fierce fighting at El Caney and San Juan was very gratifying to those who appreciate courage, fortitude, and heroic sacrifice. Both of those positions were held by comparatively small forces of Spaniards, and were regarded as the outer-works of the intrenchments around Santiago. But troops occupying intrenched positions and stone buildings, armed with smokeless-powder rifles and machine guns, cannot be dislodged, except by directing against them a most destructive artillery fire or an overwhelming force of troops, or by flank manœuvres. Our troops, under the skilful and conspicuous leadership of the subordinate commanders directly in charge of them on the fighting-line, displayed in a marked degree dauntless intrepidity, fortitude, and gallantry. Lawton exhibited most excellent generalship and the same tenacity and activity which he had displayed on other fields. Chaffee was conspicuous for his courage, for which he was already noted. Bates, one of the veterans of the Civil War, moved his division to the support of Lawton, and again returned in time to take part in the closing scenes about San Juan Hill. Wheeler, who had taken part in the affair at Las Guasimas and had become ill from overexertion, which compelled his absence during the principal fighting at San Juan Hill, yet, on hearing of the engagement, with more martial spirit than physical strength, joined his command later in the day. During his temporary absence, the cavalry division was under the command of Colonel (afterwards General) Sumner, whose commands were given in the most cool and deliberate way, under the most trying circumstances, as the troops swept up the ascent at San Juan Hill. The bravery of Roosevelt was conspicuous as he led his command into action, while the troops under Generals Hawkins and Kent were skilfully manœuvred by their brave commanders.

The army lost in these engagements some of its best officers and bravest men. The total number present for duty June 30 was 858 officers and 17,358 enlisted men. From July 1 to 12 there were 22 officers and 222 enlisted men killed, and 93 officers and 1,288 enlisted men wounded.

The troops, with the assistance of the Cubans, continued to besiege the garrison, extending their line to the right until it reached the bay of Santiago, covering the Cobre road.

While the news of the results of the engagements was gratifying, the situation of the troops caused much anxiety, and the severe loss that had occurred rendered the situation serious. In fact, it is impossible to describe the condition of anxiety that existed in Washington at that time, and especially on the receipt of the following telegram:

"PLAYA DEL ESTE, *July 3, 1898.*
"(Received Washington—11.44 A.M.)

"*The Secretary of War, Washington:*

"We have the town well invested on the north and east, but with a very thin line. Upon approaching it we find it of such a character and the defences so strong, it will be impossible to carry it by storm with my present force, and I am seriously considering withdrawing about 5 miles and taking up a new position on the high ground between the San Juan River and Siboney, with our left at Sardinero, so as to get our supplies, to a large extent, by means of the railroad, which we can use, having engines and cars at Siboney. Our losses up to date will aggregate a thousand, but list has not yet been made; but little sickness outside of exhaustion from intense heat and exertion of the battle of the day before yesterday and the almost constant fire which is kept up on the trenches. Wagon-road to the rear is kept up with some difficulty on account of rains, but I will be able to use it for the present. General Wheeler is seriously ill, and will probably have to go to the rear to-day. General Young also very ill, confined to his bed. General Hawkins slightly wounded in foot. During sortie enemy made last night, which was handsomely repulsed, the behavior of the regular troops was magnificent. I am urging Admiral Sampson to attempt to force the entrance of the harbor, and will have a consultation with him this morning. He is coming to the front to see me. I have been unable to be out during the heat of the day for four days, but am retaining the command. General Garcia reported he holds the railroad from Santiago to San Luis, and has burned a bridge and removed some rails; also that General Pando has arrived at Palma, and that the French consul, with about 400 French citizens, came into his lines yesterday from Santiago. Have directed him to treat them with every courtesy possible.

"SHAFTER, Major-General."

The following reply was sent, not only for the purpose of expressing appreciation of the heroic conduct of the troops, but to give all possible encouragement, with the assurance of speedy reinforcement:

"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
"WASHINGTON, D. C., *July 3, 1898.*

"*General Shafter, Playa del Este, Cuba:*

"Accept my hearty congratulations on the record made of magnificent fortitude, gallantry, and sacrifice displayed in the desperate fighting of the troops before Santiago. I realize the hardships, difficulties, and sufferings, and am proud that amid those terrible scenes the troops illustrated such fearless and patriotic devotion to the welfare of our common country and flag. Whatever the results to follow their unsurpassed deeds of valor, the past is already a gratifying chapter of history. I expect to be with you within one week with strong reinforcements.

"MILES,
"Major-General, Commanding."

The following reply was received:

"HEADQUARTERS 5TH ARMY CORPS,
"NEAR SANTIAGO, PLAYA, *July 4, 1898.*

"*Maj.-Gen. Nelson A. Miles, Commanding the Army of the United States, Washington:*

"I thank you in the name of the gallant men I have the honor to command for the splendid tribute of praise which you have accorded them. They bore themselves as American soldiers always have. Your telegram will be published at the head of the regiments in the morning. I feel that I am master of the situation and can hold the enemy for any length of time. I am delighted to know that you are coming, that you may see for yourself the obstacles which this army had to overcome. My only regret is the great number of gallant souls who have given their lives for our country's cause. SHAFTER."

On July 3 Cervera's fleet sailed out of the harbor of Santiago. It was not a challenge to battle, for Cervera knew the odds against him were overwhelming. On the contrary, it was a dash for life. For his plunge the Spaniard chose a most favorable moment, as he could have seen the flag-ship of the mighty fleet which environed him (and its fleetest) steam majestically towards the east, as Admiral Sampson had gone to meet General Shafter, as indicated in the above telegram, leaving

Admiral Schley temporarily in command. The disposition of the vessels of our fleet had been well planned, and within three hours and forty minutes from the time of the appearance of the first vessel the whole Spanish fleet, consisting of four cruisers and two torpedo-boat destroyers, had either been sunk or were burning on the beach. Admiral Cervera and seventy-six other officers and 1,600 men were taken prisoners; 350 men were killed or drowned, and 160 wounded.

This gratifying victory settled what had been up to that moment the problem of the Spanish war in the West Indies—namely, the question as to the command of the sea. The enclosing of Cervera's fleet in Santiago Harbor was the only occasion for sending troops to that place at that season of the year. The general plan of campaign then was to first capture or destroy the fleet and then to capture the island of Porto Rico.

The destruction of the Spanish fleet presented a new problem, especially in view of the fact that serious losses had been suffered by the army and of the possibility that further sacrifice might be required to reduce the garrison at Santiago, it being known that the army was liable to be decimated by disease at that season.

The situation at that time is indicated by the following telegrams:

"PLAYA DEL ESTE (*via* HAITI),
"*July 4, 1898—11.50* P.M.

"*Adjutant-General, U. S. A., Washington:*

"Headquarters 5th Army Corps, in camp near Santiago de Cuba, 4. There appears to be no reasonable doubt that General Pando succeeded in entering Santiago last night with his force, said to be about 5,000 men. This puts a different aspect upon affairs, and while we can probably maintain ourselves, it would be at the cost of very considerable fighting and loss. General Lawton reports that General Garcia, who was to block entrance of Pando, informed him at ten o'clock last night that Pando had passed in on Cobre road. Lawton says cannot compel General Garcia to obey my instructions, and that if they intend to place themselves in any position where they will have to fight, and if they intend to reduce Santiago, we will have to depend alone upon our own troops, and that we will require twice the number we now have. I sent a message to Admiral Sampson, asking if he proposed entering the harbor so as to give us his assistance. Commodore Watson replies that he does not know Admiral Sampson's intention since the destruction of the Spanish squadron, but does not himself think fleet should try to go into harbor of Santiago. This, under the circumstances, is not very encouraging. Have been expecting a division from Tampa and Duffield's 2d Brigade from Camp Alger, but only a small number of recruits has appeared so far. If we have got to try and reduce the town, now that the fleet is destroyed, which was stated to be the chief object of the expedition, there must be no delay in getting large bodies of troops here. The town is in a terrible condition as to food, and people are starving, as stated by foreign consuls this morning, but the troops can fight and have large quantities of rice, but no other supplies. There will be nothing done here until noon of the 5th, and I suppose I can put them off a little longer to enable people to get out. Country here is destitute of food and growing crops, except mangoes. Men are in good spirits and so far in good health, though it is hard to tell how long the latter will continue. I am sorry to say I am no better, and, in addition to my weakness, cannot be out on account of slight attack of gout, but hope to be better soon. Lieutenant Miley had interview with consuls this morning, and his report will be telegraphed immediately. I do not send this in cipher, as time is precious.

"SHAFTER, Major-General."

"PLAYA DEL ESTE (*via* HAITI),
"*July 5, 1898—1.10* A.M.

"*Adjutant-General, Washington:*

"Headquarters 5th Army Corps, camp near San Juan River, 4. If Sampson will force an entrance with all his fleet to the upper bay of Santiago, we can take the city within a few hours. Under these conditions I believe the town will surrender. If the army is to take the place, I want 15,000 troops speedily, and it is not certain that they can be landed, as it is

getting stormy. Sure and speedy way is through the bay. Am now in position to do my part.

"SHAFTER, Major-General."

Three propositions were made from the War Department to the chief executive. The discussion of these propositions resulted in my writing two notes, which will be understood by what follows. The first was the following:

"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
"WASHINGTON, *July 5, 1898.*

"*The Honorable the Secretary of War:*

"SIR,—As the object for which the army was sent to Santiago de Cuba has been accomplished—viz., the forcing of the Spanish fleet out of the harbor and its destruction by the navy, I deem the present time most favorable for proceeding immediately to Porto Rico. I consider it of the highest importance that we should take and keep that island, which is the gateway to the Spanish possessions on the Western Hemisphere, and it is also important that our troops should be landed there as early as possible during this month. There are now about 4,000 men on transports at Key West, approximately 7,000 will soon be at Charleston, S. C., and there are already 20,000 at Santiago. If this force is not sufficient, the transports can return for more, if required.

"Very respectfully,
"NELSON A. MILES,
"Major-General, Commanding."

In the second note it was stated that an officer had volunteered "to take one of the transports now at Santiago, protecting it with material there, and with which several of the transports are partly loaded, and force it into the harbor of Santiago for the purpose of dropping dynamite cartridges and dragging for submerged mines or torpedoes. Any number of volunteers will be found ready for this service if required."

On learning that no one of the four propositions was definitely determined upon, and lest my views might be misunderstood, I sent, on the afternoon of the same day, the following letter:

"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
"WASHINGTON, *July 5, 1898.*

"*The Honorable the Secretary of War:*

"SIR,—I do not wish to be misunderstood in regard to my two notes sent you this morning. You informed me that you had three propositions to make in regard to Santiago. I replied that I would be glad if any one of them could be executed; and certainly no one could be more gratified than myself to hear that our navy had entered the harbor of Santiago to silence the batteries that are now turned upon our brave officers and men. It so happened that on returning to my office one of my staff-officers volunteered his services, without the least knowledge of what you had said to me, for the very enterprise which was suggested in one of your propositions, and I sent notice of this to you for your personal information.

"I also informed you that in case it should not be thought advisable to adopt the suggestions as indicated in your memorandum, I had another to suggest, having in mind at the time the language of General Shafter's despatch of last night, referring to the number of troops required —viz., 'We will require twice the number we now have'; also, 'If we have got to try and reduce the town, now that the fleet is destroyed, which was stated to be the chief object of the expedition, there must be no delay in getting large bodies of troops here'; and also realizing the fact that much time would be necessary to get 20,000 more troops to that place, it occurred to me that should it *not* be thought advisable to continue operations against the garrison at Santiago, it would be a good time to move on to Porto Rico, the capture of which place seemed to me of great importance at this time.

"These notes were addressed to you with the expectation that if they were of any service and met your approval, you would make such use of them as you thought advisable, but not otherwise, and I request that this communication be forwarded to the President in order to dispossess his mind of what must be a misapprehension.

"Very respectfully,
"NELSON A. MILES,
"Major-General, Commanding."

At a council of war held at the White House on the next day, the subject was seriously considered, and it was then decided that the garrison at Santiago must be destroyed or captured; and it was also decided that I should proceed immediately to Santiago and take such measures as would accomplish that object.

It was my purpose to land the troops that were then en route to Santiago on the west side of the harbor, within 2½ miles of Morro Castle, and I left with the assurance that I would have all necessary assistance from Admiral Sampson's fleet.

I left Washington on July 7 and reached Columbia, S. C., on the 8th, and thence proceeded by special train to Charleston, at which place I arrived on the evening of the same day and immediately boarded the swift steamer *Yale*, the Atlantic liner, better known as the *Paris*, which was already loaded with troops, ready to heave anchor, off the harbor and city of Charleston. She was accompanied and convoyed by the United States steamer *Columbia*, also carrying troops. At midnight these two fleet steamers headed for the south with all possible speed and arrived off the harbor of Santiago on the morning of July 11, while the fleet there gathered was still bombarding the works near Santiago Harbor. I immediately communicated with Admiral Sampson, apprising him of my purpose, and he promptly came on board the *Yale*. I at once acquainted him with my plan of operation, in which he cordially acquiesced and signified his readiness to support me heartily in carrying it out. As soon as the necessary arrangements could be made for that purpose, I landed on July 12, and proceeded to General Shafter's headquarters. A note was then sent to the general commanding the Spanish forces, informing him of my arrival and that I desired to have an immediate conference with him between the lines, to which he readily assented, fixing the time at twelve o'clock on the ensuing day.

Already, before leaving Washington, I had been made aware of the appearance of yellow fever among our troops in Cuba and the serious situation which that fact presented. On arriving there I found that the contagion had increased rapidly, and the importance of immediate and decisive action was abundantly apparent.

The meeting with General Toral between the lines on the 13th, under a flag of truce, was no less interesting than important. Several communications had passed between him and General Shafter in regard to the surrender of the garrison, and General Shafter had wired the Secretary of War to the effect that the entrance of our fleet into the harbor was necessary before he could expect a surrender. In the conversation with General Toral reference was made to his correspondence with General Shafter, the latter urging him to surrender his forces, and he (Toral) claiming that under the Spanish law he could not surrender so long as he had ammunition and food, of both of which it is well known he had a supply. Indeed, the very last ship to enter the harbor of Santiago before it was blockaded by our fleet brought a herd of cattle, which very materially increased the supplies already on hand. At the close of our conversation, I informed the Spanish commander that when I left Washington, six days before, the decision of the government had already been reached, that this portion of the Spanish army must either be destroyed or captured, and that the necessary force would be provided and used for that purpose; that I had brought strong reinforcements; and that if they were not sufficient more would follow in order to make sure of accomplishing the object stated. I also reminded him that he had already abundantly vindicated the honor of the Spanish arms in the defence which he had made. I pointed out that further resistance would be of no avail and would only result in unnecessary waste of life. Finally, I informed him that I would give him until the next morning at daylight to decide, and that it would be useless to expect any further delay. He earnestly represented that he could not in so short a time communicate with his government; and recognizing the possibility of the truth of that statement, I extended the time until twelve o'clock, noon. The conference was then discontinued.

On my way back to camp I received the following telegram from the Secretary of War:

"WASHINGTON, D. C., *July 13, 1898.*

"*Major-General Miles:*

"You may accept surrender by granting parole to officers and men, the officers retaining their side-arms. The officers and men after parole to return to Spain, the United States assisting. If not accepted, then assault, unless in your judgment an assault would fail. Consult with Sampson and pursue such course as to the assault as you jointly agree upon. Matter should be settled promptly.

"R. A. ALGER, Secretary of War."

Thus, as will be seen, the matter was left entirely within my discretion. Immediately thereafter I communicated with Admiral Sampson, requesting him to have his preparations completed to cover the landing of troops at the point designated, Cabanas Bay, on the west side of the entrance of Santiago Harbor, at twelve o'clock on the following day. I also gave direction to the generals commanding the troops on board the transports to complete their preparations for landing their troops at that time and place.

Early the following morning, accordingly, the ships of the fleet were in motion, converging to their designated positions, followed by the transports. This movement was observable from the Spanish outlooks, and information of the manœuvre was speedily communicated to General Toral, some officers having reported to him that they could see fifty-seven vessels, some of which were loaded with troops. Before twelve o'clock arrived, the Spanish commander sent the following letter:

"SANTIAGO DE CUBA, *July 14, 1898.*

"HONORED SIR,—His excellency the general-in-chief of the army of the island of Cuba telegraphs from Havana yesterday at 7 P.M. the following: 'Believing that business of such importance as the capitulation of that place should be known and be decided upon by the government of his Majesty, I give you notice that I have sent the conditions of your telegram, asking an immediate answer and enabling you also to show this to the general of the American army to see if he will agree to await the answer of the government, which cannot be as soon as the time which he has decided, as communication by way of Bermuda is more slow than by Key West. In the meanwhile your honor and the general of the American army may agree upon capitulation on the basis of repatriation (returning to Spain).' I have the honor to transmit this to you, in case you may (consider) the foregoing satisfactory, that we may designate persons in representation of himself, who, with those in my name, agree to clauses of the capitulation upon the basis of the return to Spain, accepted already in the beginning by the general-in-chief of this army.

"Awaiting a reply, I am, very respectfully, your servant,

"JOSÉ TORAL, etc.

"*General-in-Chief of the American Forces.*"

This was, as will be seen, in effect an acquiescence in the demands made upon him the previous day, and on meeting him under a flag of truce at the appointed hour, twelve o'clock, he said that such was his purpose, but under the Spanish rules it would be necessary for everything to be known and approved at Madrid, and that there was not the least doubt that his government would confirm his action. His manner and frankness left no doubt of his sincerity, and I informed him that I would accept his assurance without reservation, which, as subsequent events proved, was made in good faith, greatly to the gratification of the troops who had taken part in the heroic struggle.

The surrender included not only the garrison of Santiago, consisting of some 11,000 men, but the entire command of General Toral stationed at different points in the eastern part of Cuba, numbering in all 24,000 men.

The Cubans are entitled to at least a good share of the credit for these results, as they, and the United States marines landed near Guantanamo, were the only troops who had been contending against the troops not actually in the garrison at Santiago. Their action during the siege is indicated by the following letter:

"NEAR SANTIAGO, CUBA, *July 15, 1898.*

"DEAR GENERAL GARCIA,—I beg to congratulate you, as well as ourselves, on

what seems now to have been a fortunate solution of the Santiago problem, resulting in the success of our combined forces in the taking of the city, the departure of the Spanish, and the restoration of peace in Santiago.

"Permit me to say to you that your forces have performed most notable service, and their work has been invaluable to us; not only in scouting and procuring information, but in the vital matter of the construction of trenches and defences for the investment of the city. Your people have accomplished an immense amount of this work with almost no appliances whatever, and have cheerfully surrendered the use of them to our troops when the continuation of the investment rendered it necessary to move our regiments forward to the right.

"I make this statement, general, personally and not officially, because I am but a subordinate commander, but do so for the reason that I have been more closely in touch with your forces and have had better occasion to observe their work and the value of their co-operation than perhaps any other.

"I desire to thank you also for the service of General Sanchez and his troops, which were placed at my disposition, and I desire to commend General Sanchez to your favorable consideration. He has promptly and willingly complied with every demand I made on him, and has performed valuable service in extending our right flank to reach the cemetery and cover the Cobre road.

"I shall take another occasion to thank you for the innumerable personal courtesies that you and the officers of your command have shown me, and which I hope to have an opportunity to repay in somewise hereafter.

"I beg to remain your obedient servant,

"WILLIAM LUDLOW,

"Brigadier-General, U. S. V."

Indeed, their part in obtaining the results should not be thus lightly dismissed. In my official report I have tried in some measure to do them justice. Since that report was submitted, I have seen the translation of a work published in Spain by the second in command of the naval forces of the province of Santiago de Cuba, who was present within the beleaguered lines throughout the Santiago campaign, in which I find admissions greatly to the credit of our Cuban allies. But without these admissions from the enemy, the fact that these insurgents had for three years been steadily gaining ground against troops who had met ours at El Caney with such heroism, is sufficient vindication of their courage and fighting capacity.

I sent the following despatch, and, later, issued the order which follows:

"HEADQUARTERS CAVALRY DIVISION, U.S.A.,

"BEFORE SANTIAGO, CUBA,

"*July 14, 1898*—*12.55* P.M.

"*The Secretary of War, Washington, D. C.:*

"General Toral formally surrendered the troops of his army corps and division of Santiago on the terms and understanding that his troops would be returned to Spain. General Shafter will appoint commissioners to draw up the conditions of arrangement for carrying out the terms of surrender. This is very gratifying, and General Shafter and the officers and men of this command are entitled to great credit for their tenacity, fortitude, and in overcoming almost insuperable obstacles which they have encountered. A portion of the army has been infected with yellow fever, and efforts will be made to separate those who are infected and those free from it, and to keep those who are still on board ship separated from those on shore. Arrangements will be immediately made for carrying out the further instructions of the President and yourself.

"MILES,

"Major-General, Commanding the Army."

"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,

"SIBONEY, CUBA, *July 16, 1898.*

"General Field Orders, No. 1.

"The gratifying success of the American arms at Santiago de Cuba and some features of a professional character both important and instructive are hereby announced to the army.

"The declaration of war found our country with a small army scattered over a vast territory. The troops composing this army were speedily mobilized at Tampa, Fla. Before it was possible to

properly equip a volunteer force, strong appeals for aid came from the navy, which had enclosed in the harbor of Santiago de Cuba an important part of the Spanish fleet. At that time the only efficient fighting force available was the United States army, and in order to organize a command of sufficient strength the cavalry had to be sent dismounted to Santiago de Cuba with the infantry and artillery.

"The expedition thus formed was placed under command of Major-General Shafter. Notwithstanding the limited time to equip and organize an expedition of this character, there was never displayed a nobler spirit of patriotism and fortitude on the part of officers and men going forth to maintain the honor of their country. After encountering the vicissitudes of an ocean voyage, they were obliged to disembark on a foreign shore and immediately engage in an aggressive campaign. Under drenching storms, intense and prostrating heat, within a fever-afflicted district, with little comfort or rest, either by day or night, they pursued their purpose of finding and conquering the enemy. Many of them, trained in the severe experience of the great war, and in frequent campaigns on the Western plains, officers and men alike exhibited a great skill, fortitude, and tenacity, with results which have added a new chapter of glory to their country's history. Even when their own generals in several cases were temporarily disabled, the troops fought on with the same heroic spirit until success was finally achieved. In many instances the officers placed themselves in front of their commands, and under their direct and skilful leadership, the trained troops of a brave army were driven from the thickets and jungles of an almost inaccessible country. In the open field the troops stormed intrenched infantry, and carried and captured fortified works with an unsurpassed daring and disregard of death. By gaining commanding ground they made the harbor of Santiago untenable for the Spanish fleet, and practically drove it out to a speedy destruction by the American navy.

"While enduring the hardships and privations of such a campaign, the troops generously shared their scanty food with the 5,000 Cuban patriots in arms and the suffering people who had fled from the besieged city. With the twenty-four regiments and four batteries, the flower of the United States army, were also three volunteer regiments. These, though unskilled in warfare, yet, inspired with the same spirit, contributed to the victory, suffered hardships, and made sacrifices with the rest. Where all did so well it is impossible, by special mention, to do justice to those who bore conspicuous part. But of certain unusual features mention cannot be omitted—namely, the cavalry dismounted fighting and storming works as infantry, and a regiment of colored troops, who, having shared equally in the heroism as well as the sacrifices, is now voluntarily engaged in nursing yellow-fever patients and burying the dead. The gallantry, patriotism, and sacrifices of the American army, as illustrated in this brief campaign, will be fully appreciated by a grateful country, and the heroic deeds of those who have fought and fallen in the cause of freedom will ever be cherished in sacred memory and be an inspiration to the living.

"By command of Major-General Miles:
"J. C. GILMORE,
"Brigadier-General, U. S. V."

The surrender having been definitely agreed upon, my first thought then was to put the troops into as healthful camps as possible and remove them from the danger of further infection from yellow fever; and also to as speedily as possible organize the expedition for the capture of Porto Rico, which I had been desirous of accomplishing for several weeks.

The success of Captain Dorst's expedition, in which he supplied Garcia's Cuban troops with 7,500 rifles, a million cartridges and a large amount of war material, had contributed its part towards the general results. So did the hazardous journey made by Lieutenant Rowan, U. S. A., who landed at El Portillo, about 70 miles west of Santiago de Cuba, on April 24, visited General Garcia's camps, crossed the island to Manati on the north coast, and sailed thence on May 4 in an open boat to Nassau, New Providence. He had succeeded in gaining full knowledge of the condition of affairs

existing prior to the campaign at Santiago.

At about the same time an important reconnoissance was made by Lieutenant Whitney, U. S. A., through Porto Rico. He left the United States on May 5, and reached St. Thomas. There he shipped as a common sailor on board a British tramp steamer, and after many adventures and vicissitudes got himself put ashore on the island of Porto Rico. His risk was as great as an officer could take, for, being in disguise, under an assumed name, in the midst of the enemy, without other protection than his wits, the penalty of capture would have been nothing short of a spy's death. He visited Ponce and other places, explored the southern portion of the island, and left there June 1, returning to Washington June 9, in time to accompany me to Santiago and Porto Rico. The information he gained concerning the position of the Spanish troops, the topography of the country, the character of the inhabitants, the resources and amount of supplies available, and especially his reports of the condition of the harbors, I afterwards found to be most important.

Before the command under General Shafter started from Tampa for Santiago, the general plan of campaign was to effect either the capture or destruction of the Spanish fleet under Cervera, and then make an attempt to capture the island of Porto Rico. The island was considered the key to the possession of the West India islands, and therefore of very great strategical importance. With that end in view I was, on June 26, directed to organize a second expedition to campaign "in Cuba and Porto Rico"; but the resistance which our troops met with at Santiago and the call for an additional force at that point made it necessary to send forward portions of the command intended for the second expedition to reinforce the command at Santiago.

The destruction of the Spanish fleet and the capture of the garrison having been completed, the expedition to Porto Rico became the next object of immediate importance. To return to Washington and organize a large expedition, or to assemble one on the north coast of the island of Cuba, in the Bay of Nipe, would require much time when time was extremely valuable, and, as I believed, of vital importance. As to taking any part of the command that had landed in the vicinity of Siboney and Santiago, very serious consideration was given, owing to the fact of the appearance of yellow fever. Reports were called for from all of the regiments that were then in Cuba. These were carefully examined each day to ascertain if any of the regiments were free from infection, and it was found that there was not a single regiment that had not been represented on the surgeons' reports as having some cases of this dread disease, ranging from the lowest number to as high as thirty-three cases to a regiment. There had been nearly 500 cases of yellow fever reported by the surgeons. In addition to these, there were many reports of sickness, great weakness and prostration among the troops, which I then supposed were caused by exposure and climatic influences, and I did not suspect them to have been augmented, as I believe now, by other causes. It was therefore considered injudicious to take any portion of that command, and it was necessary to make up the expedition for Porto Rico entirely independently of the force (upwards of 17,000 troops) left on shore in Cuba. I was only able to gather 3,414 fighting men for that enterprise, and so reported by cable. This included those who had fallen sick since sailing from the States, the effective force being about 3,300 men.

This seemed hardly a sufficient force with which to invade an island defended by about 20,000 troops. The available United States troops were still on board the transports and had not come into contact with the troops affected with the yellow fever. As soon as the necessary transportation could be arranged for, with proper supplies, and a convoy secured from the fleet, the command was to sail.

The expedition rendezvoused at Guantanamo Harbor, some 50 miles east of Santiago, a well-sheltered harbor, which the navy had captured and utilized very much to their advantage.

After four days of most active preparation at Guantanamo, the expedition sailed on the afternoon of July 21, under the escort of a convoy commanded by

Captain (now Admiral) Higginson, of the battle-ship *Massachusetts*.

Before sailing from Guantanamo I had expected to receive from the harbor of Santiago tugs, lighters, and appliances for disembarking, and I had hoped to meet during the night, when traversing the Windward Passage, similar appliances for landing, but when day dawned this hope had been dispelled. The expedition turned eastward, moving slowly along the northern coasts of Haiti and Santo Domingo, pursuing almost the identical track followed by the Great Admiral on his first voyage of discovery as he prepared to return to Spain four centuries before.

On the evening of the 23d we passed in sight of the point of land on the northern coast where the first Spanish colony was planted by Columbus.

About three centuries ago a disaster had resulted to a British expedition against the Spaniards, worthy of mention at the present time. The expedition had originally been directed against the very point of Porto Rico for which we had set sail. It was under the command of two of England's most famous naval heroes. The circumstance is related at some length by the historian Hume, but more briefly by Knight, who says: "Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Hawkins sailed with six of the Queen's ships, and twenty others fitted out at private charge, having on board a considerable land force commanded by Sir Thomas Baskerville. They made an assault on Porto Rico, but they were repulsed."

A century ago, after the Franco-Spanish alliance against England, the British prepared to weaken Spain through attacks on her colonies. A squadron was assembled in the West Indies under the command of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, which attacked the Spanish fleet in the bay of Port of Spain, Island of Trinidad, and captured the island, with 200 pieces of artillery and all its stores. The English then turned their eyes towards Porto Rico, as being the nearest Spanish island of importance. Abercrombie landed his troops off the little hamlet of Cangrejos and made several determined attempts to take San Juan; but after two weeks of desultory bombarding and skirmishing was finally forced to depart, with a total loss of 230 killed, wounded, and missing.

On July 24 we passed off the Bay of Samana, whence Columbus, in January, 1493, took his departure for home. Had he sailed east, instead of northeast, on his return home, he would have found the large island of Porto Rico, which at that time was known among the Indians as the Island of Carib.

The first clash of the coming contest was to be between the invaders and a dependency of Spain wherein Spain's authority had been maintained for 390 years (since the island was captured and subjugated by Ponce de Leon), and was yet unquestioned.

Realizing the fact that our destination had undoubtedly become known to the enemy, the problem presented was one requiring most serious consideration. In fact, the following items appeared in the Washington papers and were doubtless cabled to Madrid and back to San Juan de Porto Rico as soon as published in the press of the United States.

On July 22 this item was published: "Miles on his way—Left with 3,000 men yesterday afternoon for Porto Rico.

"Secretary Alger believes that General Miles, on the *Yale*, will arrive at his destination Sunday morning, with 3,000 men under his immediate command."

On the 23d it was announced that "General Miles is now east of Cape Haytien," etc., and on the morning of the 24th appeared the following:

"ST. THOMAS, *July 23*.

"The Spaniards at San Juan de Porto Rico are making extensive preparations to resist an anticipated attack upon the part of the United States war-ships which are understood to be convoying the army of invasion commanded by General Miles. There were no signs this morning of the American war-ships or transports, but news of them is expected soon."

The point for disembarkation, Point Fajardo, for which we had set sail, had been originally selected at the instance of the officers of the navy. This point was on the northeast corner of Porto Rico, and presumably the Spanish commanders must have obtained information of our destination and our strength. Later it was learned that they had been apprised of both and had actually proceeded to concentrate their

forces and commence constructing intrenchments and fortifications with a view to a stubborn and effective resistance. Acting on the principle that a military commander should do that which the enemy least expects him to do, I determined, under the circumstances, to change my point of disembarkation from the northeast coast of the island to Guanica, on the southwest coast, and within easy striking distance of Ponce, the principal city and commerical emporium of the island.

Instead of making a demonstration at Point Fajardo, it was finally decided to go direct to Guanica.

Of course, the tugs, the launches, and other fleet steamers of the enemy in Porto Rico must have been on picket-duty well out from the northwest shores of the island, ready to give quick notice of the discovery of the skyward-curling smoke of the approaching squadron, which would be seen by them long before they themselves could be observed from the squadron, and hurry back to announce its approach by telegraph from Aguadilla or Arecibo, as the case might be. They might fairly have reported that the squadron standing well out to sea was sweeping eastward off to Mona Passage, which meant, of course, its probable appearance at Fajardo on the morrow. But later that squadron, having turned sharply south, was ploughing the Mona Passage, its officers and men having had their first glimpse of the mountain peaks of Porto Rico through the dim, misty light of the eastern horizon. Under cover of the darkness of night the fleet was quietly stealing down the broad passage, every light extinguished, and even the port-holes on the port side closed, notwithstanding the intense heat and close atmosphere. In the gray, shadowed light of the evening and night the fleet presented a picture unlike anything I had ever seen before.

One familiar with the Western plains of a quarter of a century ago might well have been reminded of a pack of large, gray wolves cautiously and noiselessly moving in the shades of night, or the dim light that ushers in the dawn, upon their prey.

What the morrow should bring none could foretell.

There was more anxiety than sleep during the weary hours of that night, and early the next morning we went on deck to witness the first appearance of the Caribbean sun. The picture at five o'clock was one never to be forgotten.

The squadron had some time before doubled the islands which stand out like sentinels at the southwestern extremity of the island, and was now trailing directly towards the east, with a magnificent land view sharply defined in the distance to our left.

Suddenly the *Massachusetts* is seen to turn abruptly to the left and lead directly towards the land, every ship in her wake turning exactly at the same place. There is much signalling among the warships, which the landsmen could not decipher, and an opening into the inland gradually emerged to the view out of the hazy distance. At length the *Massachusetts* heaves to, broadside on, in front of the opening, her brave men standing at quarters and her decks cleared for action. More signalling follows, and the *Gloucester* takes the lead, with the stars and stripes in extravagant proportions glistening in the morning sunlight from her mainmast, manœuvres for a brief time between the *Massachusetts* and the entrance, and then is seen to move slowly and cautiously forward, straight into the channel between the two bold headlands which mark the place of ingress to the harbor of Guanica, beyond one of which she soon disappears, her officers and men keeping a sharp lookout for masked batteries above and submarine mines below. Soon she sends back in the thunder of her guns the announcement that she is clearing the shores to make the landing of her small company of marines safe. She was immediately followed by the transports, and every available boat from them and from the naval vessels was freighted with eager and fearless troops. The navy rendered cordial and invaluable aid in disembarking troops and supplies. Ten lighters were captured at Guanica and a few days later seventy more at Ponce.

By eleven o'clock on the morning of the 25th a firm footing had been established and the American flag raised.

While at sea the organization of the various bodies into a provisional division

had been effected. It consisted of two brigades, the first of which, composed of the 6th Massachusetts and 6th Illinois Volunteers, was placed under the command of Brig.-Gen. G. A. Garretson, and the second, composed principally of artillery, under the command of Major Lancaster, 4th Artillery; the immediate command of the whole being assigned to Brig.-Gen. Guy V. Henry.

On the evening of the 25th a company of the 6th Massachusetts, on outpost duty on the Yauco road, were made aware of the presence of the enemy, and General Garretson sent two additional companies to their support. About two o'clock on the morning of the 26th the enemy opened fire upon our advance, whereupon General Garretson proceeded at the head of five more companies of that regiment to their assistance, and on his arrival, when he discovered that the enemy were preparing to make a surprise and attack, he immediately assumed the aggressive and drove them from their position, compelling their hasty retreat on Yauco. Great credit is due General Garretson for his courage, skill, and enterprise in winning the first fight on Porto Rican soil. In fact, the first engagement is always of great importance, because of its moral effect upon the troops of both sides.

Two days later the town of Yauco was occupied by a detachment of General Garretson's brigade, giving us possession of the railroad and main highway, by which a direct march upon Ponce was feasible, although that place was occupied on the same day by troops moved by sea.

On the 27th Major-General Wilson and Brigadier-General Ernst arrived from Charleston with part of the brigade belonging to the command of the latter, the 2d and 3d Wisconsin Volunteers. On the same day the *Annapolis* and the *Wasp* joined Captain Higginson's squadron.

With the force at Yauco threatening from the rear, the command was now strong enough to move directly against Ponce from the sea. General Wilson was therefore directed to hold his command on board ship, move outside the harbor, and anchor, in readiness to follow in the wake of the battle-ship *Massachusetts* when, during the night, she should steam for the harbor of Ponce.

Early on the morning of the 28th, just as General Wilson was entering the harbor of Ponce, the *Mobile* arrived, bringing the balance of Ernst's brigade, the 16th Pennsylvania Volunteers, and also two companies of the 6th Illinois, which had been left at Charleston for want of room on the *Yale* and *Columbia*.

The *Dixie*, the *Annapolis*, and the *Wasp*, all under command of Commodore Davis, had entered the harbor on the previous evening to reconnoitre, and found it was neither fortified nor mined. The garrison of La Playa had fled. The commander of the Spanish forces at Ponce had been censured and imprisoned for not making a strong defence, but it would have been fruitless if not disastrous for him to do so, as he would have been menaced both in front and rear by a superior force.

On the morning of the 28th, the army took possession of the city and its port, La Playa.

General Wilson, a very distinguished general of high rank and important command in the Civil War, was placed in immediate command of the city.

Soon after landing at Guanica an incident occurred which impressed me very forcibly. While I was supervising the operations on shore, a white-haired mulatto, who spoke a little English, pressed his way to the head of my horse and inquired if I was the commander. Being answered in the affirmative, he handed me a small packet, which he had carefully concealed, which proved to be a communication in Spanish. Translated, it read as follows:

"*To the Chief of Operations of the Invading Army of the American Union:*

"CITIZEN,—Not knowing exactly how I ought to guide myself in entering into a direct communication with your camp, I direct this to the chief of operations, to express to you my duty in these historical moments, and that trust in the power of a strong conscience and in the valor of arms as they pertain to the great issues of liberty and of patriotism in this island. An absolute military censorship shuts out from the city the means of obtaining the news, and I wish that you and your companions may know the true feeling of our municipality. Here we wait with impatience American occupation that

comes to break the chain that has been forged constantly during four centuries of infamous spoliation, of torpid despotism, and shameful moral slavery. When the rudders of the American ships entered the waters of the coast of Guanica to bear to this country political revolution, great confidence was born again, again was awakened the ideal of sleeping patriotism in our consciences and the lullaby of perfidious promises which have never been fulfilled. An entire city, with the exception of those who live under the shadow of pretence and official immunity, is prepared to solemnize the glorious tramp of civilization, and offers its blood as a holocaust to such a grand proposition. Let this message bear to you notice that our municipal conscience does not sleep and wait. Here you can count on the great masses, who are prepared to second your gigantic strength. All the districts of this jurisdiction are prepared for combat. The districts of the city are also prepared. Men of intrepid hearts surround me, ready for the struggle. The only thing that prevents the manifestation of unity is an absolute need of the elements of war. On the other hand, we have already driven from the town our eternal enemies to the rights of Porto Ricans. I do not wish to impose upon my ideas of patriotism the grave responsibility of directing my men upon the enemy without capacity to maintain the struggle. In this moment of activity may this communication serve to dispose you to embrace an opportunity to utilize the services that I offer. Before closing, I wish to warn you that at the entrance to this city, on the roads of Adjuntas and Canas, the Spanish government is actively engaged in constructing several trenches to foolishly obstruct the march of the army of liberty, and they are concealing themselves in the small neighboring hills and difficult passes in the cañons in order to carry out this resistance. With many wishes for your health and much appreciation of the great triumph of America, I am,

"Your humble servant,

"FELIX MATOS BERNIER.

"*July 26, 1898.* (PONCE, P. R.)"

To such a people it became my pleasure to issue a proclamation.

"PONCE, PORTO RICO, *July 28, 1898.*

"*To the Inhabitants of Porto Rico:*

"In the prosecution of the war against the kingdom of Spain by the people of the United States, in the cause of liberty, justice, and humanity, its military forces have come to occupy the island of Porto Rico. They come bearing the banner of freedom, inspired by a noble purpose to seek the enemies of our country and yours, and to destroy or capture all who are in armed resistance. They bring you the fostering arm of a nation of free people, whose greatest power is in its justice and humanity to all those living within its fold. Hence the first effect of this occupation will be the immediate release from your former political relations, and it is hoped a cheerful acceptance of the government of the United States.

"The chief object of the American military forces will be to overthrow the armed authority of Spain and to give to the people of your beautiful island the largest measure of liberty consistent with this military occupation. We have not come to make war upon the people of a country that for centuries have been oppressed, but, on the contrary, to bring you protection, not only to yourselves, but to your property, to promote your prosperity, and bestow upon you the immunities and blessings of the liberal institutions of our government. It is not our purpose to interfere with any existing laws and customs that are wholesome and beneficial to your people so long as they conform to the rules of military administration of order and justice.

"This is not a war of devastation, but one to give all within the control of its military and naval forces the advantages and blessings of enlightened civilization.

"NELSON A. MILES,

"Major-General, Commanding U. S. A."

The sentiment spread like magic over the island. It caused a large number of volunteers to immediately desert the cause and colors of Spain.

Brigadier-General Schwan arrived from Tampa on the 31st with the 11th and 19th Infantry, a troop of the 2d Cavalry, and two batteries of the 7th Artillery. Major-

General Brooke arrived on the *St. Louis* July 31, and was ordered to proceed the day following to Arroyo, about 40 miles east of Ponce, where he landed on the 2d.

On Aug. 1 Brig.-Gen. Peter C. Hains arrived on the *St. Paul* with the 4th Ohio Volunteers, and on the 2d the 4th Pennsylvania Volunteers arrived. Both these regiments were sent at once to join General Brooke.

As reinforcements continued to arrive they were assigned to the various columns, which it was desired to move with the least possible delay. It was known that the enemy, having been misled as to our supposed place of landing, had concentrated their forces nearly 80 miles from our point of occupation, and had subsequently decided to occupy and fortify a narrow pass in the mountains near Aibonito. This fact being known, it was our purpose to make strong demonstrations in front of that position, without the slightest idea, however, of sacrificing lives in a direct assault.

There was a trail over the mountains from Adjuntas to Utuado, a distance of some 18 miles, but it was so rough that the Spaniards had considered it impracticable for the passage of troops, and had neither guarded nor fortified it. Brig.-Gen. Roy Stone, an officer of war experience and a skilled engineer, was directed to make it practicable. He was supplied with an adequate escort for his protection and given unlimited authority to employ native labor. He soon made the route practicable for the passage of General Garretson's command, which crossed over the mountains to the north side of the island.

On Aug. 5 General Brooke had a sharp engagement with the Spanish troops at Guayamo, which town was finally captured by our forces; and on Aug. 8 another engagement took place as the result of a reconnoissance on the road north of Guayamo. This reconnoissance developed the fact that the enemy was strongly intrenched on a crest commanding the road from 6 to 8 miles north of Guayamo, towards Cayey. One object of the movement under General Brooke was to intercept the enemy if he should fall back from Aibonito on the advance of General Wilson, and also to co-operate in the attack upon that place.

On Aug. 6 General Schwan was ordered to proceed from Ponce to Yauco with six companies of the 11th Infantry, Troop A, 5th Cavalry, and two batteries of light artillery, and on arrival there to take the balance of the 11th Infantry (which was already there) and organize his command preparatory to a movement by way of Sabana Grande, San German, Mayaguez, and Lares to Arecibo, to which point it was intended to send General Garretson's column by the more direct route *via* Adjuntas and Utuado—all to be concentrated under General Henry, together with additional troops to be sent around by sea from Ponce to Arecibo; and it was intended that when a junction had been formed the division should march on San Juan. Arrangements had also been made to send a gunboat to Arecibo to assist, if required, in the taking of that place. The movement of this division from Arecibo to San Juan would have made the enemy's position at Aibonito and Cayey untenable and intercepted his retreat.

General Wilson, having pushed his troops forward on the road to San Juan, occupied on the 7th a line across a narrow valley about 7½ miles beyond the village of Juana Diaz. The enemy had a force of about 2,000 troops at Aibonito, 35 miles from Ponce, with an advanced position at Coamo, where it was estimated there were some 400 men. This advanced position could not be taken directly without great loss. General Wilson therefore decided, on the evening of the 8th, to send the 16th Pennsylvania Volunteers, under Colonel Hulings, by mountain cross-trails, which were known to be exceedingly difficult, over the divide into the valley of the Coamo River, so as to reach the main road in rear of Coamo. On the morning of the 9th General Ernst, with the main body of his brigade, moved forward to the attack, the brunt of the action, however, falling on the 16th Pennsylvania. The result was as planned. The enemy were mostly intercepted in their retreat, with a loss on our side of only six men wounded, while the enemy's loss was five officers and eleven men killed and sixty-seven wounded, and five officers and 192 men captured.

The four columns in their respective positions were now ready for a simultaneous advance, their ultimate destination being the same—San Juan; and their movements will be described according to location from west to east, which brings us first to that of General Schwan.

His command started from Yauco on Aug. 9. An engagement took place on Aug. 10 at Hormigueros with the entire garrison of Mayaguez (consisting of 1,362 men). The enemy was driven back and so badly defeated that he continued his retreat before our forces, evacuating Mayaguez, a city of 20,000 inhabitants, which place General Schwan entered at the head of his troops at 9.30 A.M. on the 11th. On the afternoon of the 11th General Schwan sent out detachments of cavalry on both the roads leading to Lares to get information of the enemy's movements, and learned that the enemy was proceeding slowly on the Las Marias road. He ordered Lieutenant-Colonel Burke, of the 11th Infantry, to take six companies of that regiment and one platoon each of cavalry and artillery and make a reconnoissance on the road towards Lares. Colonel Burke left Mayaguez at 10.30 A.M. on the 12th and arrived at the forks of the Las Marias and Maricao roads about sunset, where he bivouacked for the night. On the 13th he came up with a large force of Spaniards at the crossing of the Rio Prieto, near Las Marias, where a sharp engagement took place. On this reconnoissance seventeen Spaniards were killed, a large number wounded, and fifty-six prisoners taken. The victorious march of General Schwan's column, however, was arrested by the receipt, on the morning of the 14th, of orders to suspend hostilities. Lares was, in fact, evacuated by the Spaniards in anticipation of the advance of our troops.

From Aug. 7–15 General Schwan's troops marched 92 miles, occupied nine towns, made 162 regulars prisoners of war, captured and paroled 200 volunteers, captured much valuable material, and practically cleared the western part of the island of the enemy.

On the 12th General Garretson's brigade had passed over the mountains and reached Utuado, and on the 13th General Henry had joined that part of his command at that point, when he received notice of the suspension of hostilities.

In his report General Henry states that Arecibo would have been occupied on the 14th. Had hostilities not been suspended at that particular time, the Spaniards retreating before Schwan's brigade would have been captured, as they were between two strong commands and escape was impossible.

By Aug. 9 General Ernst's brigade, of Wilson's command, was encamped along the valley in advance of Coamo, with its outposts about 5½ miles beyond that town.

On Aug. 10 and 11 General Wilson had careful reconnoissances made of the enemy's position at Aibonito, as a result of which it was considered to be practicable to again turn the enemy by his right, to be effected by moving the main body of his (General Wilson's) command to Barranquitas, and thence to Aibonito, *via* Honduras, or to Cayey, *via* Comerio and Cidra, or to Las Cruces, on the main highway to San Juan, as circumstances might determine, leaving sufficient troops to hold the line occupied by our outposts in front of Aibonito. General Wilson had directed General Ernst to be prepared to make this movement at daylight on the morning of the 13th. In the mean time, on the 12th, partly for the purpose of diverting the enemy's attention from this projected movement, and to develop the strength of the Spanish batteries on the summit of Asomante Hill and El Penon, 2½ miles northwest of Aibonito, a sharp artillery fire was opened on the enemy's position. Our artillery opened fire at 1 P.M. from a position on the reverse side of the low ridge to the left of the main road. When the turning movement was about to be made, General Wilson received the intelligence of the suspension of operations against the enemy.

By Aug. 12 General Brooke had made complete preparations to move Hains's brigade against the Spanish position on the road between Guayamo and Cayey, which was to be done on the following day. Early in the morning of that day (13th) General Hains proceeded with one regiment (the 4th Ohio) down the Ponce road, thence northward, with the view of turning the position of the Spanish

force near Pablo Vasquez, on the main road to Cayey. He was to move to the rear of the Spanish forces, while General Brooke, with the 3d Illinois regiment, a part of the 4th Pennsylvania, some batteries and other troops, would engage them on the main road. General Brooke placed his troops in the desired position and waited until he thought General Hains was at or near the position he was to take, when the artillery was unmasked and everything was ready to shell the enemy. Just at this moment, however, General Brooke received the message announcing the suspension of military operations.

Such, briefly outlined, was the campaign that gave us Porto Rico, where the flag has ever since floated, farther east than ever before.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE WAR.

1898—Jan. 12. The North Atlantic Squadron assembled in the neighborhood of Dry Tortugas, Gulf of Mexico.

Jan. 15–20. Hostile demonstrations at Havana by Spanish volunteers against Americans caused the governor-general to place a guard around the United States consulate.

Jan. 25. The battle-ship *Maine* arrived at Havana on a friendly visit.

Feb. 8. A letter by Minister De Lome, in which he wrote disparaingly of President McKinley, was published. On learning of the exposure the minister requested his government to accept his resignation.

Feb. 9. The United States Senate discussed intervention in Cuba.

Feb. 14. Resolutions requesting the President to transmit information relative to the situation in Cuba were adopted by Congress.

Feb. 14. Señor Luis Polo y Bernabe was appointed Spanish minister to the United States to succeed Señor De Lome.

Feb. 15. The battle-ship *Maine* was blown up in the harbor of Havana by a floating mine; 260 American lives were destroyed.

Feb. 16. Spain officially expressed regret for the *Maine* "incident."

Feb. 17. A naval court of inquiry into the cause of the destruction of the *Maine* was appointed by the United States government.

Feb. 18–25. The Spanish cruiser *Vizcaya* visited New York Harbor. On the last date she sailed for Havana.

Feb. 20. The court of inquiry began its session in Havana.

Feb. 22. The cruiser *Montgomery* proceeded to Havana.

March 5. Spain asked for the recall of Consul-General Lee, which was promptly refused by the United States government.

March 7. A bill appropriating $50,000,000 for the national defence was introduced in the House of Representatives. It passed the House March 8 and the Senate March 9, and was signed by the President.

March 11. The War Department began the mobilization of the army.

March 12. The battle-ship *Oregon* sailed from San Francisco to join the Atlantic Squadron.

March 12. Armistice was offered by Spain to the Cuban insurgents.

March 14. The Spanish fleet sailed from Cadiz for the Canary Islands.

March 14. Senator Proctor's report on Spanish atrocities in Cuba was published.

March 19. The *Maine* court of inquiry completed its labors. Its report was delivered to the President March 25, and transmitted by him to Congress March 28.

March 25. Commodore Schley took command of the flying squadron in Hampton Roads.

March 30. The President requested permission of Spain to relieve the reconcentrados, which was granted.

April 2. The Spanish fleet arrived at the Cape de Verde Islands.

April 4. The pope appealed to Spain in the interests of peace.

April 5. United States consuls in Cuba were recalled.

April 7. The diplomatic representatives of the great powers of Europe waited on the President with a plea for peace.

April 9. Consul-General Lee, with many Americans, departed from Havana.

April 11. The President sent a message to Congress outlining the situation, declaring that intervention was necessary,

advising against the recognition of the Cuban government, and requesting Congress to take action.

April 19. Congress adopted resolutions declaring Cuba independent and directing the President to use the forces of the United States to put an end to Spanish authority in Cuba.

April 20. The President signed the resolutions of Congress. An ultimatum to Spain was cabled to Minister Woodford.

April 20. The Spanish Cortes met and received a warlike message from the Queen-Regent.

April 21. The Spanish government sent Minister Woodford his passports, thus beginning the war.

April 21. Congress passed an act for increasing the military establishment.

April 21. Great Britain notified Spain that coal was contraband of war.

April 22. Proclamation to the neutral powers announcing war was issued by the President.

April 22. Admiral Sampson's fleet sailed from Key West. The blockade of Cuban ports began.

April 22. The gunboat *Nashville* captured the Spanish ship *Buena Ventura*, the first prize of the war.

April 23. The President issued a call for 125,000 volunteers.

April 24. Great Britain issued a proclamation of neutrality, and was followed subsequently by the other powers, except Germany.

April 24. Spain formally declared that war existed with the United States.

April 25. Congress passed an act declaring that war had existed since April 21.

April 25. Commodore Dewey's fleet sailed from Hong-Kong for the Philippines.

April 26. Congress passed an act for the increase of the regular army.

April 27. Batteries at Matanzas were bombarded.

April 30. Admiral Cervera's fleet left the Cape de Verde Islands for the West Indies.

May 1. Commodore Dewey destroyed the Spanish fleet at Manila. American loss, six men slightly wounded.

May 5–7. Riots in Spain.

May 11. Commodore Dewey was made a rear-admiral.

May 11. Attack on Cienfuegos and Cardenas. Ensign Bagley and four men on the torpedo-boat *Winslow* were killed.

May 11. Admiral Cervera's fleet appeared off Martinique.

May 12. Admiral Sampson bombarded San Juan de Porto Rico.

May 13. The flying squadron left Hampton roads for eastern Cuba, *via* Key West.

May 18. A new Spanish ministry under Señor Sagasta came into office.

May 19. Admiral Cervera's fleet arrived in the harbor of Santiago de Cuba.

May 22. The cruiser *Charleston* sailed from San Francisco for Manila.

May 24. The battle-ship *Oregon* reached Jupiter Inlet, Florida.

May 25. The President issued a second call for volunteers, the number being 75,000.

May 25. The first Manila expedition from San Francisco started.

May 30. Admiral Sampson's fleet arrived at Santiago from Porto Rico.

May 31. Forts at the entrance of Santiago Harbor were bombarded.

June 3. Lieutenant Hobson sank the *Merrimac* in the entrance to Santiago Harbor.

June 4. Captain Gridley, of the *Olympia*, died at Kobe, Japan.

June 6. Spanish cruiser *Reina Mercedes* was sunk by American navy at Santiago.

June 10. War revenue bill was finally passed by Congress. It was signed by the President June 13.

June 11. Marines landed at Guantanamo, and skirmished with the Spaniards the following day.

June 12–14. General Shafter's army of invasion, 16,000 strong, embarked at Key West for Santiago.

June 14, 15. There was fighting between marines and Spaniards at Guantanamo Bay and a bombardment of the fort at Caimanera by war-ships.

June 15. Admiral Camara's fleet sailed from Cadiz for the Suez Canal.

June 20–22. General Shafter's army landed at Daiquiri; one killed, four wounded.

June 21. The Ladrone Islands were captured.

June 22. The auxiliary cruiser *St. Paul* repulsed a Spanish torpedo-boat attack off San Juan, Porto Rico.

June 24. Juragua was captured. The Spaniards were defeated at Las Guasimas. Capron and Fish were killed.

June 26. Admiral Camara's fleet reached Port Said.

June 28. General Merritt departed for Manila.

July 1, 2. The Spanish earthworks at El Caney and San Juan, Santiago, were carried by assault, with heavy loss, in which the Rough Riders and the 71st New York participated.

July 3. Admiral Cervera's fleet, attempting to escape from Santiago, was destroyed by the American war-vessels.

July 3. The surrender of Santiago was demanded.

July 6. Hobson and his comrades were exchanged.

July 8. Admiral Dewey's vessels took possession of Isla Grande in Subig Bay, near Manila, and the German gunboat *Irene*, which had been interfering, withdrew.

July 8. Admiral Camara started to return through the Suez Canal to Spain. He reached Cadiz July 29.

July 10. Bombardment of Santiago was resumed.

July 11. General Miles arrived at American headquarters in Cuba.

July 13. Admiral Cervera and captured Spanish prisoners arrived at Portsmouth, N. H.

July 17. Santiago surrendered.

July 20. Gen. Leonard Wood was appointed military governor of Santiago.

July 21. Last naval engagement on the coast of Cuba. Four United States warships entered the harbor of Nipe, and after a furious bombardment took possession of that port.

July 25. United States army under General Miles landed at Guanica, Porto Rico. The town surrendered, and Ponce followed July 28.

July 26. The Spanish government, through French Ambassador Cambon, asked for terms of peace.

July 29. General Merritt landed at Cavité, Manila Harbor.

July 30. The President, through the French ambassador, stated the American terms.

July 31. The Americans repulsed the Spaniards, with loss on both sides, at Malate, near Manila.

Aug. 7. The Rough Riders left Santiago for Montauk Point, L. I.

Aug. 9. General Ernst defeated a Spanish force at Coamo, Porto Rico.

Aug. 9. Spain formally accepted the President's terms of peace.

Aug. 12. The peace protocol was signed and an armistice was proclaimed. The blockade of Cuba was raised.

Aug. 13. Manila surrendered to the American forces after a short land fight and bombardment by the fleet.

Aug. 20. Imposing naval demonstration in the harbor of New York. The battleships *Iowa*, *Indiana*, *Massachusetts*, *Oregon*, and *Texas*, and cruisers *New York* and *Brooklyn*, amid a great popular ovation, steamed up the Hudson River to Grant's tomb and saluted.

Aug. 30. General Merritt sailed from Manila for Paris to attend the peace conference.

Sept. 9. United States peace commissioners were appointed. They sailed for France Sept. 17.

Sept. 10. The United States Cuban evacuation commissioners arrived at Havana.

Sept. 13. Admiral Cervera and other Spanish naval officers sailed for Spain.

Sept. 18. Spanish peace commissioners were announced.

Sept. 20. The evacuation of Porto Rico by the Spaniards began.

Sept. 24. A commission appointed by the President to investigate the conduct of the War Department began its sessions at Washington.

Oct. 1. The conferences of the peace commissioners began in Paris.

Oct. 12. The battle-ships *Oregon* and *Iowa* sailed from New York for Manila.

Oct. 18. Peace jubilee celebration at Chicago.

Oct. 18. The American army and navy took formal possession of the island of Porto Rico at San Juan.

Oct. 24. Time limit for the evacuation of Cuba by the Spaniards was extended to Jan. 1, 1899.

Oct. 27. After a long and earnest contention the Spanish peace commissioners accepted the American ultimatum not to assume the Spanish Cuban debt.

Oct. 31. The United States peace commissioners presented the demand of the United States for the Philippines.

Nov. 1. The captured cruiser *Infanta Maria Teresa* was abandoned in a gale off San Salvador.

Nov. 7. The Cuban Assembly was organized at Santa Cruz del Sur. Domingo Mendez Capote was elected president.

Dec. 10. The treaty of peace was signed at Paris at 8.45 P.M.

Spangenberg, AUGUSTUS GOTTLIEB, clergyman; born in Kletlenberg, Germany, July 15, 1704; was a benevolent teacher and helper of poor children. Joining the Moravians in 1733, he was sent as a missionary to the West Indies and North America in 1735. He established a colony in Georgia, and received a grant of land from the trustees. He was the founder of Bethlehem, a Moravian settlement in Pennsylvania, and in 1743 he was made bishop. He crossed the Atlantic Ocean several times to look after the Church in America, and on the death of Count Zinzendorf, in 1760, he was called to the supreme council of the sect. In 1764 he was appointed supreme inspector in Upper Alsatia. In 1789 Bishop Spangenberg became president of the general directory. He died in Berthelsdorf, Saxony, Sept. 18, 1792.

Spanish-American War, NATIONAL SOCIETY OF THE, organized Aug. 12, 1898. Its headquarters are in Baltimore, Md. Local councils of the society may, upon approval of the executive council, be formed in any community. Membership is open to all patriotic Americans. Men and women share equally the honors and duties of membership. The badge of the society is a circular field of dark-blue enamel. The edge of the field is worked into thirteen points; on the field are thirteen golden stars encircling the letters "L. W. F.," which stand for the motto of the society, which is, "Lest We Forget." The executive officers wear signet rings in the shape of eagle's claws grasping a sard, upon which are engraved the letters "L. W. F." and the insignia of the rank of the officer. The membership fee, payable to the national society, is $1; patrons and patronesses pay $5 annually, and life members $100 in one payment. The local fees are regulated by the local councils. The local councils have great freedom of action. All that is required of them is unswerving fidelity to the purpose of the national society, the payment of yearly dues, and certain work on Memorial Day.

Spanish-American War, NAVAL AND MILITARY ORDER, instituted Feb. 2, 1899. Membership is composed of persons who served on the active list, or performed active duty as a commissioned officer, regular or volunteer, during the war with Spain, or who participated in the war as a naval or military cadet. Membership descends to the eldest male descendant in the order of primogeniture.

Spanish Fort. See MOBILE, 1865.

Sparks, JARED, historian; born in Willington, Conn., May 10, 1789; graduated at Harvard College in 1815. He had passed his youth in mechanical pursuits, and during his college course taught for a while a small private school at Havre de Grace, Md. He was in the militia that opposed Cockburn and his marauders. At Cambridge he studied theology; became an editor of the *North American Review*, and was sole proprietor and conductor of it from 1823 to 1830. He was a Unitarian minister at Baltimore from 1819 to 1823, and in 1821 was chaplain to the House of Representatives. In 1839 he was chosen Professor of History at Harvard, occupying the position ten years, and from 1849 to 1852 he was president of that institution. In 1857 Dr. Sparks made a tour in Europe with his family, and afterwards resided at Cambridge until his death, March 14, 1866. Dr. Sparks's earlier publications were mostly on theological subjects. In 1834 he began the publication of *The Writings of George Washington, with a Life.* It was completed in 1837 (12 volumes.) He had already (1829–30) published *Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Revolution* (12 volumes), and *Life of Gouverneur Morris*, 1832. He edited *The American Almanac* for many years from 1830, and in 1840 completed *The Works of Benjamin Franklin* (12 volumes). He also edited a series of *American Biography* (15 volumes), of which he wrote several of the sketches. His last great labor in the field of American documentary history, in which he wrought so conscientiously and usefully, was the publication of *The Correspondence of the American Revolution* (4 volumes, 1854). His *Washington* cost him nine years of labor, including researches, in 1828, in the

archives of London and Paris, which were then opened for historical purposes for the first time.

Spaulding, SOLOMON, clergyman; born in Ashford, Conn., in 1761; served in the Revolutionary War; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1785; entered business with his brother in Cherry Valley, N. Y., in 1795, and a few years later in Richfield, N. Y. In 1809 he settled in New Salem (now Conneaut), O., and while living there wrote a romance entitled *The Manuscript Found,* which was a narrative of the customs of the people whom the writer believed to be the original inhabitants of the North American continent. This narrative was never published, but was read to many friends of the author as early as 1811–12. In 1830 a number of Mormons preaching in Ohio gave an account of how the golden plates had been found from which the *Book of Mormon* was compiled. From this account a suspicion arose that the *Book of Mormon* was an outgrowth of *The Manuscript Found,* and it was alleged that Sidney Rigdon and Joseph Smith stole Spaulding's manuscript, and from it made the book of the Mormon faith. In 1884, however, James H. Fairchild, president of Oberlin College, compared Spaulding's manuscript with the *Book of Mormon* and declared that there was no resemblance except in general features. Spaulding died in Amity, Pa., Oct. 20, 1816. See MORMONS; SMITH, JOSEPH.

SPEAKER OF CONGRESS, THE

Speaker of Congress, THE. In the following historical review of the office of speaker of the national House of Representatives, Gen. Adolphus W. Greely, U. S. A., considers the vast powers vested in the incumbent and the various media through which they are executed:

The United States has been most fortunate in the selection of the official chiefs of its co-ordinate branches of government —the executive, judicial, and legislative. Rarely has it occurred that a man filling any of these exalted offices has fallen short of the high standard that America demands, and of a few it may be even said that the man has been, if anything, greater than his office.

The power of the speaker of the House of Representatives has steadily increased from the First Congress to the present, and in its influence on national legislation is believed by many even to exceed that exerted by the President. Samuel J. Randall, through whom the influence of the speaker was increased more largely than by any other man in this country, once said: "I came to consider that (the speakership) . . . was the highest office within the reach of American citizens; that it was a grand official station, great in the honors which it conferred and still greater in the ability it gave to impress on our history and legislation the stamp of truth, fairness, justice, and right."

In view of the political struggles in the House of Representatives over the dominating factor of national legislation—the appointment of committees—it is interesting to trace the growth of the speakership from an office scarcely above that of moderator to its present autocratic position as a representative exponent of the policy of the dominant party.

It is important to note that if the House of Representatives at its first session in 1789 did not clothe the speaker with autocratic powers, yet it invested the office with an external dignity of a somewhat Turveydrop character. The House, indeed, saved the dignity of the country by disagreeing to the proposition of the Senate to address the President as "His Highness . . . the Protector of their Liberties," but when it came to its presiding officer, the earliest rules ordered that "when the House adjourns, the members shall keep their seats until the speaker go forth; and then the members shall follow," a procedure that was in force for nearly six years, until Nov. 13, 1794.

The House, however, kept its legislative powers in the hands of its members. Business was often done on the motion of a member. The speaker appointed only the minor committees, while the impor-

tant committees were elected by ballot, a fact that is generally unknown. Committeeships were limited both in power and in tenure of office, service being, as a rule, for a few days only, and never beyond one session.

The first rules for the House of Representatives, April 7, 1789, were reported by Elias Boudinot on behalf of his fellow-committeemen, Nicholas Gilman, Benjamin Goodhue, Thomas Hartley, Richard Bland Lee, James Madison, Roger Sherman, William Smith, Thomas T. Tucker, and Jeremiah Wadsworth. Among the most important of them were those setting forth the speaker's relation to the committees, as follows:

"The speaker shall appoint committees unless it be determined by the House that the committee shall consist of more than three members, in which case the appointment shall be by ballot of the House.

"Committees consisting of more than three members shall be balloted for by the House; if upon such ballot the number required shall not be elected by a majority of the votes given, the House shall proceed to a second ballot, in which a plurality of votes shall prevail; and in case a greater number than are required to compose or complete the committee shall have an equal number of votes, the House shall proceed to a further ballot or ballots."

It is to be noticed that all the important committees were named by the House, which in its first session elected nine committees by ballot. While the rules were silent on the subject, yet the tenure was brief, the committee on elections only serving through the session. The policy of the House in 1789 was indicated by the discharge of the committee on ways and means, after less than two months' service, and by the intrusting of all matters to special committees whose tenure expired with brief reports speedily rendered. Even the Fourth Congress in 1795 had but two standing committees, and the number in 1805 and in 1815 were but seven and twelve respectively. The Fifty-fourth Congress, in 1896, on the other hand, had, including three joint committees, no less than fifty-seven standing committees.

The chief officials of the two Houses of Congress evidently viewed with disfavor their restricted powers, and efforts were speedily made to enlarge their scope. Both attempts were along the same lines, to empower the speaker of the House and the president of the Senate to appoint all committees. The Senate, Oct. 31, 1791, on a motion to alter the Senate rule, which provided for the election of committees by ballot, so that the Vice-President should be empowered to nominate committees in future, declined to surrender its powers and to this day elects its committees.

In the House the speaker was more successful. The last committee elected by ballot, if indeed it was elected, was that of Jan. 11, 1790, which was constituted to bring in a bill for the enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States. Under the standing rules of the House, this committee, consisting of one member from each State, should have been elected by ballot. The *Annals of Congress*, compiled nearly thirty years later, state that this course was pursued, but the official journal of the House states that the committee was appointed. However this may be, the House immediately thereafter reversed its original action and initiated a policy of strengthening the powers of the speakership, which has been followed to the present day.

The House *Journal* of Jan. 13, 1790, contains the following record: "On motion, ordered, that so much of the standing rules and orders of this House as directs the modes of appointing committees be rescinded; and that hereafter it be a standing rule of the House, that all committees shall be appointed by the speaker, unless otherwise especially directed by the House, in which case they shall be appointed by ballot; and if upon such ballot the number required shall not be elected by a majority of the votes given, the House shall proceed to a second ballot, in which a plurality of votes shall prevail; and in case a greater number than are required to compose or complete the committee shall have an equal number of votes, the House shall proceed to a further ballot or ballots."

The House *Journal* and the *Annals of Congress* are silent as to reasons advanced by Richard Bland Lee, who assisted in formulating the original rules, in moving

this change, and also as to the vote on the subject. It was undeniably a thin House, as no less than fourteen out of its sixty-one members had not qualified. It would hardly seem that the change was dictated by the difficulty of elections, for the House consisted of only sixty-one members, and the occasions for elections were infrequent. It may be added that this was the only rule changed by the House during that Congress.

The importance of the committees was obvious at the opening of the Second Congress, when immediately after the qualification of the speaker, clerk, and members, the House "Ordered, that the speaker shall appoint committees until the House shall otherwise determine."

The next change of rules, Nov. 13, 1794, affected the chairman of the committee of the whole, who, under rules of April 7, 1789, "was to be appointed." The new rule put the intention of the House beyond doubt by a proviso that the chairman "shall be appointed by the speaker."

The increased power of the speaker proved displeasing to many members, especially those in the political minority, but no open attack was made upon the speaker's absolute control of committees until the second session of the Eighth Congress, when Nathaniel Macon, of North Carolina, was speaker. It may be added that the persistent and determined attack then made affords the only instance in the history of the House where the power of the speaker has been even ostensibly diminished. I say ostensibly diminished, for the limitation then placed on the speaker and the power then granted to committees of electing a member to a vacant chairmanship has never again been exercised.

On Nov. 6, 1804, the House excused Mr. J. C. Smith, chairman of the committee on claims, from serving thereon, and S. W. Dana, being appointed on the committee in Smith's place, was regarded by a majority of the committee as being its chairman, thus excluding from promotion Mr. Holmes, who was the second person on the original list. Thereupon a new standing rule was submitted as follows:

"That each of the committees of this House be empowered to appoint a chairman by plurality of votes in all cases where the first-named member of the committee shall be absent, or excused by the House."

The committee to whom this motion was referred reported in favor of the motion except that the election should be by a *majority* of the committee. The House, after debate, refused to agree to the resolution by a vote of 50 yeas and 69 nays. Immediately a motion was made that all committees should choose their own chairman, but this with another similar motion failed. But the question would not down, and finally the following standing rule was adopted, Nov. 23, 1804:

"That the first-named member of any committee appointed by the speaker of the House shall be the chairman, and, in case of his absence, or being excused by the House, the next named member, and so on, as often as the case shall happen, unless the committee shall, by a majority of their number, elect a chairman."

It does not appear that any chairman has been so elected save in the original case, where the committee was carrying out the wishes of the speaker.

One contingency, however, that of death, was not taken into consideration, but in providing for it in the amendment of the rules, 1888, the power of the speaker was again enhanced by adding the following addition to the rule:

"And in the case of the death of a chairman, it shall be the duty of the speaker to appoint another."

On April 21, 1806, Mr. James Sloan, after a bitter attack on John Randolph, moved, "for the purpose hereafter of keeping the business of the House of Representatives within its own power," that all standing committees shall be appointed by ballot and choose their own chairman. This motion was tabled, and being renewed by Mr. Sloan in the next session was defeated by the very close vote of 42 ayes to 54 noes. The question was revived at the beginning of the next Congress, Oct. 28, 1807, by Thomas Blount, but without success. The attempt was renewed in the following Congress by Mathhew Lyons, who moved, May 23, 1809, that the standing committees be appointed by ballot for the reason that the "course proposed would be more respectful to the nation; and that the

person so appointed would feel a greater responsibility to the House." Mr. Gardiner supported the motion as "consistent with the republican mode of proceeding and thinking proper for this country . . . where the many were as competent as the few or as the one." The motion was defeated by 67 nays to 41 yeas.

For forty years, until the election of a speaker by a plurality vote in 1849, there were no further efforts to effect a radical reform in the selection of the standing committees, the intervening attempts being confined to single or to special committees.

However, not infrequent charges of partisanship were made against the committee of elections, and in 1813 the effort to set aside as illegal the election of Mr. Hungerford, of Virginia, on a report of the committee of elections to that effect, caused much debate. Finally the committee's report was rejected and Hungerford was confirmed in his seat. Rufus King, of Massachusetts, who voted against the report of the committee, moved, June 14, 1813, that "the committee of elections shall in future be designated by lot, etc."; but the motion was defeated. Similar and unsuccessful attempts were made to change the method of electing this committee in 1838 and 1839.

As regards special committees, Mr. Pitkin's efforts failed, April 4, 1810, to have the committee to inquire into the conduct of General Wilkinson appointed by ballot, the vote being 53 ayes to 64 noes.

In one case only has the speaker barely escaped from the election of a special committee by the ballots of the members of the House, March 13, 1832, in connection with the appointment of a special committee on the Bank of the United States, Mr. Stevenson being speaker. The House, after a long debate, voted by 101 yeas to 99 nays on a motion by Erastus Root that the committee shall be appointed by ballot. Before the result was announced Mr. Plummer, of Mississippi, who had voted yea, changed his vote, thus making a tie, whereupon the speaker gave the casting vote in the negative.

In the prolonged contest over the election of the speaker in 1849, when for the first time in the history of the House he was elected by a plurality vote contrary to the standing rules, the general question of the appointment of the committees by the speaker was again raised. This was natural, as the complexion of the committees was a political factor of primary importance. Mr. Sackett, of New York, then moved "that the committees of this House be appointed by the House under a *viva voce* vote of the members thereof, and that it shall require a majority of those voting to elect." The speaker ruled the resolution out of order.

In recent years Mr. Gillette's proposition in 1880, to restrict the power of the speaker to appoint until especially authorized by the House, was unsuccessful. Mr. Orth's motion of Jan. 11, 1882, to change the methods of appointing committees, was referred to the committee on rules, of which the speaker was chairman. Mr. Orth claimed that in the present method "the responsibility was too great for any single individual, and that a one-man power is always dangerous and in conflict with republican principles of government." Several similar but unsuccessful efforts were made later, which need not be dwelt upon.

It may be added that with the increasing power of the speaker the powers of the committees have been likewise augmented.

A brief statement indicating wherein lies the power of the speaker and the committees may not be inappropriate. There is no rule requiring committees to report to the House any bills except general appropriations. Seven committees only have the right to report at any time, and then only on matters especially designated. One committee only, that on rules, of which the speaker is chairman, has a right to have its report considered at any time; to this committee must go all proposed action touching order of business. No proposition, except by unanimous consent, can be considered unless reported by committee. No member can address the House without being recognized by the speaker, who decides which of several members rising together shall speak first. The speaker, without laying them before the House, refers bills, executive reports, etc., to committees, and reports of committees

to appropriate calendars, and on such references often depends the fate of a measure.

Until 1861 committeeships expired with each session, but now as regards standing committees the terms are coexistent with the organized life of each Congress. Speaker Colfax, when the power of the House was questioned, decided that "the House of Representatives has the power to instruct any committee which it is authorized to appoint. It is a judicial check upon the power of the speaker in appointing committees." Such instructions are extremely rare, and the power of each committee over legislation in its particular branch is almost unlimited. It was frequently possible in the early Congresses for individuals to secure at times legislation that had not passed the scrutiny of a committee, but such legislative action is now almost unknown.

Inasmuch as the present system of appointments and the scope of power of committees have been the gradual and uninterrupted growth of a century's experience on the part of the House, it is not probable that any radical changes will be made therein in the near future. Such changes, if made at all, would naturally occur under conditions similar to those which caused the election of coalition speakers in 1795 and 1839, or of plurality speakers in 1849 and 1855. Any change would doubtless result in the adoption of strictly American methods, such as those in vogue in the Senate, where committees have always been elected. By the French, German, and Italian methods, committees are elected by ballot through the medium of sections into which their legislative bodies are divided, but Congress would scarcely import these foreign methods.

Great as are the powers of the speaker of the House of Representatives, and potent for good or evil as are the committees appointed by him, it is pessimistic to attribute to either or to both a measure of power detrimental to the future weal of the nation. In continual contact with the people, and observant of the glaring publicity that causes frequent reversals of public opinion, it is safe to say that future Congresses, if they should initiate legislation of an objectionable character, would ultimately enact such laws as will harmonize with the intelligent wishes of the people, and tend to the highest development of the republic.

The following article describes the methods whereby the necessities of the government are attended to by the House of Representatives. This article was written by the Hon. Thomas B. Reed, during his last term of office as speaker of the House:

How the House Does Business.—The citizens of the United States have, as a rule, only vague ideas of the methods adopted by the House of Representatives to do its part of the legislative business of the country. A clear comprehension of the facts would dissipate many objections and do much to reconcile even members themselves to the limitations of each individual's power, for they would find that the limitations arise out of the nature of things and are wellnigh inevitable.

Every member of the House represents a large constituency in its relation to national affairs. Each one, therefore, feels that his rights should be commensurate with his duties. In fact and practice, however, there are 356 other gentlemen who represent constituencies just as extensive, and with just as many rights. The problem is how to recognize each one's rights, having also due regard to the rights of all the rest. Obviously, no one has rights to the exclusion of the rights of others. This problem the House has had to meet from its very beginning in 1789, and the methods now in use have been the creation of no one man and of no set of men, but have been the slow growth of a hundred years, changing with the changed circumstances and meeting new conditions as they arose. Why they are what they are can best be understood by considering the duties and obligations and the physical possibilities of an assembly of 360 men, for such is the number of men who compoose the House of Representatives when you include the three territorial delegates, who have the right of speech though not of vote.

It is to be noted at the outset that there are few analogies between the House of Representatives of the United States and the corresponding bodies of the different

States. The differences between the two are fundamental and very wide reaching.

When the Constitution was prepared and submitted to the people of the separate States the authors of the *Federalist* recognized one difference, which has not only lasted to this day, but which has greatly increased. When they undertook to defend the intrusting of two years' power to the House they encountered much opposition. The popular sentiment of that time was well expressed in the popular proverb that where annual elections left off tyranny began. All the thirteen colonies then believed that two years' power was a dangerous gift, too dangerous even to be intrusted to the representatives of the people themselves. Whether much of the trouble we are having in the States does not arise from the abandonment of that opinion of our forefathers is well worth the consideration of the judicious. However that may be, biennial elections were fiercely assailed, and the defence brought out a fundamental fact as true, or, perhaps, more true to-day than ever before, the fact that we all of us know little of what is thought and believed outside our own locality. Although we are a great nation, united and compact, it is still true that the first government we live under is the government of the State. That first attracts our attention, and, speaking generally, that is about the only part of the government of which we have much knowledge. Of Congress the people get little information; of their own legislatures the people get a great deal. Inasmuch as the newspapers so limit their accounts of congressional action that an absent Congressman can hardly keep track of the proceedings of his own assembly, the individual in private life can hardly expect to have much of an idea of what is going on even in that part of the proceedings which affects him. As for the action of States other than his own the citizen in general has no notion whatever unless some extraordinary action is taken. Our State affairs we take in by absorption.

In Congress every member finds himself at one great disadvantage, which length of service may diminish but can never entirely take away, and that disadvantage arises from the lack of local knowledge as to far-off States. We may be a homogeneous nation, but we are certainly not lacking in diversities.

The broad extent of the country, in more ways, therefore, than one, affects the legislative action of the House, and also its methods of action.

In some of the smaller States all the business which is presented to the legislature is disposed of in some way or other. The committees report all bills and resolutions which are sent to them, and both Assemblies say "yes" or "no" directly or indirectly to them all.

In Congress neither House attempts to do anything of the kind. The pigeon-holes of all of the committees which are fortunate enough to have any business at all are found, at the end of the session and of Congress, full of bills undisposed of. Thousands also of the bills reported are left on the calendars without even the poor formality of being discussed, or even of being called up. In a word, Congress, when it gets ready, adjourns, leaving the dead bills by the way-side.

In assemblies where all the business is transacted, where the dockets and calendars are cleared, it is only a question of the time when a proposition shall be heard, and never a question whether it shall be heard at all.

In order to state the situation in the House of Representatives in more concrete form, and therefore to bring it nearer to general comprehension, the facts relating to the business of the House and Senate of the Fifty-fourth Congress now last past will be very useful. Both sessions of this Congress were short. The number of bills introduced into the House and Senate was 14,114. The number of resolutions was 470, making a total of 14,584 bills and resolutions. When we adjourned there had been passed of these, 948 acts and resolves. On the calendars of the House were more than 2,000 bills and resolutions not acted upon, and the rest were in the pigeon-holes of the committees undisturbed, or at least unreported. It will, therefore, be seen that the House did only 6½ per cent. of the business laid before it. Out of 14,584 a selection of 948 was made. The question which naturally arises is how was this selection made, how did it happen that these particular bills were

passed upon and not the others. A detailed statement may help to make this clear. Among the bills passed were those which raised, or attempted to raise, revenue, bond bills, all the bills carrying the great appropriations for the support of the government, bridge bills, railroad right-of-way bills, private bills, and public bills of all descriptions.

Among those bills which were not passed were many which without the sanction of law or precedent proposed to pay large sums. Added to these were private claims, pension claims, individual schemes, and propositions to increase the salaries of our civil servants while we were borrowing money for the necessities of life.

To have passed the bills which were passed and all those which were presented would have been a task which could not have been accomplished even if the House had worked day and night for the whole period of two years.

Obviously, there are some things which have to be done. There are bills which must be passed. Unless revenue is furnished, even the ordinary function of government would be at an end. So also if the revenues were not properly appropriated according to law, the government could not go on, for its continuance costs money. Hence, under the rules of the House, the committee of ways and means having charge of bills raising revenue, and the committees on appropriations obliged to provide for the expenditure of revenue, have a right of way which is thorough and complete. Whenever the House desires to take up such bills there is neither let nor hinderance. The country, therefore, can be sure that its necessities are provided for.

Besides these pressing necessities which cannot be denied, there are others which ought not to be denied. So far as the bills of this character carry money and require its expenditure, the rules do not offer very great facilities, and indeed could not. But if there be a pressing emergency calling for expenditures, the committee on rules has the right to submit to the House a proposition to consider the measure calculated to meet the emergency. If the House so desires the measure is then considered.

In this way were considered in the last Congress the bill to regulate immigration, the bankruptcy bill, the labor commission bill, the postal bill relating to second-class mail, the Pacific Railroad bill, and various others.

There are a great many measures which it would be impossible to treat in that special way, and for these the morning hour is provided, and now that the House has got used to this period the rule has worked well and every measure not involving any appropriation and which was of a public character was passed upon in the last House. Some of the bills on the House calendar to which this morning hour applies were not acted upon, but that was simply because the committee reporting did not care to urge them.

This morning hour was the invention of the Fifty-first Congress. The old morning hour was sixty minutes only, and no committee was allowed more than two days, and the very smallest kind of a filibuster would kill a bill which the great majority of the whole House might be desirous of making law. The new morning hour can be sixty minutes only, or, if the House chooses, may continue all day, and when a bill is once brought up it cannot be killed by mere indirection. During this period of time all, or about all, the work of the judiciary committee, which has charge of the changes of federal law, a portion of the work of the inter-State and foreign commerce committee, which has charge of the transportation interests of the country, and of various other committees to a lesser degree, can and do receive consideration, and are disposed of. All the bridge bills and right-of-way bills are passed at this time.

After the Fifty-first Congress this rule, which has thus shown its value, was, owing to the high state of party feeling, changed back to the old death-trap which existed prior to 1890. It was then deemed necessary to obliterate every possible trace of the Fifty-first Congress.

Time and experience, however, have shown the value of the changes which were made in those troublous times, and I may perhaps venture to say that many gentlemen who had been opposed in the Fifty-first Congress were not hostile in the Fifty-fourth Congress to the most efficient measures to give the majority control of the House. Among other

things, we adopted, with hardly a word of dispute, the rule proposed sixteen years ago by Mr. Randolph Tucker, which will probably be found effective to secure a quorum at all times.

Besides these bills, the nature of which has been indicated, there are private bills which deal in the main with the personal claims of individual citizens. They are divided into money claims and pension claims, including removal of charges of desertion. The pension claims have Friday evening of each week set apart for their special consideration and other days by special order from the committee on rules. Friday itself is set apart for other claims.

Besides the business which pertains to the States and the congressional districts, the Congress has another class of business of great importance to the Territory interested. Besides being the legislative body for the whole Union, Congress is also the municipal council for the District of Columbia and city of Washington. Local self-government does not exist there, and whatever is done for the district is done by Congress. Much legislation gets into the District of Columbia appropriation bills. Nevertheless there is much to be done for the city of Washington, as much perhaps as for any similar city. This necessity is met under the rules of the House by setting apart two Mondays in each month, the second and fourth, or so much as is found necessary. The committee on the district on these days calls up such bills as it deems proper for consideration, and the bills are considered by the House or by the committee of the whole House on the state of the Union as determined by the nature of the bill. In this way all the matured and needful legislation is passed which the district requires.

It will be evident from the summary thus given that all the necessities of the government are promptly and thoroughly attended to and that, whatever happens to the wishes of individuals, the welfare of the great mass of the people is in the hands of their own chosen representatives.

The rest of the business indicated by the bills introduced comprises those bills of a private nature which are lost for lack of time and other bills which cannot be brought up because they are not in order from being too far down the list.

The greater number by far are private bills, or those which, like public building bills, are for the benefit of particular localities. So few, however, of these private bills can be disposed of even at the expense of one-sixth of the time of Congress that out of that and out of other private and public exigencies the custom has grown up at certain times to ask unanimous consent to take up one and another of these bills and also other bills to expend money. Under this system any one member can object and stop any action by the House. Each member has complete control and may object and defeat the bill or may help pass it. Without experience one would suppose that such a system was amply safeguarded and if a bill was so satisfactory that no one could object to it, there could be no danger in letting it be presented for passage. But, alas! the weakness of poor human nature, though of course not often prevalent, does certainly lurk in even celestial and congressional minds. If a member objects he may be the subject of reprisals and his own bill may go to the tomb of the Capulets. Moreover, he hopes some one else will bear the burden, and while he hesitates he is lost and the bill is gained. The *liberum veto* might do in Poland, but it is bad in Congress. However, the custom has been so established that it must be yielded to.

Now as to the method. If the presiding officer were simply to put down the names in the order of application all sorts of things would be presented without even one man knowing anything about them, and as soon as the list reached fair proportions all interest in it would cease, for it would only be superseding one list by another, and when that was done the special emergency idea would entirely disappear. It would not be possible, therefore, to adopt this plan, for it would wreck itself. Various expedients have been tried at various times with results not at all satisfactory. One House, that of the Forty-seventh Congress, I think, adopted a rule devoting an hour of sixty minutes of each day to such lists, one for

each committee in order. Under this arrangement bills were called up with a provision for five minutes for explanation, and if five members objected the bill was not considered. If five members did not object, then five minutes on a side were allowed for discussion and the proposition was then voted upon. Under this method, however, very few bills were passed. Objections were many and the hour was soon consumed. On two days during the second session of the Forty-seventh Congress five bills only ran the gantlet. The system in the general opinion was far from being successful, and was not long continued. The speaker then under the present system has to make the selection, and an exceedingly troublesome task it is, requiring much labor and exciting not a little feeling. However, it is only just to the members to say that the trouble arises not so much from them, for they are in position to understand the speaker's difficulties, as from the constituents who cannot understand them. The speaker is also a member of the House. When he refuses to submit for unanimous consent, he is only exercising his right to object, a right which belongs to him in common with all the other members of the assembly. He has to make more frequent objection because he has to know what the bills proposed or to be proposed are about and what their provisions mean. He has opportunities to examine them, and indeed must examine them to do his duty.

Another method of breaking the regular order, and one which unlike unanimous consent is sanctioned by the rules of the House, is the method under "suspension of the rules." Some years ago the right to move to suspend the rules and pass a bill or resolution prevailed every Monday. In exciting political times all sorts of questions and abstract propositions which were presented to entrap members and put them in the wrong were presented on Monday. Some of them were so ingeniously drawn that the enemy were caught whichever way they voted. As no amendment was permitted and but little debate, only fifteen minutes on either side, there was often much trepidation among those who were liable to be impaled on at least one horn of the dilemma. The ordeal through which we had to pass got to be so annoying that when the rules were modified and classified in the Forty-sixth Congress, the power to entertain motions to suspend the rules was confined to two Mondays in the month, the first Monday and the third; committees had the right of way on the third and individual members on the first. Here, however, selections have to be made by the speaker, and he has some of the same troubles to afflict him which present themselves on the propositions for unanimous consent. On the last six days also of a session rules may be suspended, but as the Houses in the first session seldom determine until very late the day of final adjournment the last six days of the first session are not so dreadful as those of the last session, where the House on the verge of dissolution has its last chance to enact the measure so dear to the member. At that time the struggle has driven many a speaker to the verge of distraction. He can satisfy not 5 per cent. of his applicants, and, therefore, welcomes the final adjournment as the saint ought to welcome death and paradise.

In the proceedings of the English House of Commons there seems to be an entire absence of a large class of bills which clog our calendars and make miserable the lives of members. There are no private pension bills, because there each claimant is left to the administration of the general law, nor do there seem to be any claim bills at all. Parliament is not called upon to adjudicate questions of damages resulting from the dealings of the government with its citizens. Almost all their private bills are those which, under our system of government, belong to the State and other local authorities, our work in that direction being mostly confined to bridges over navigable waters over which the nation has control.

Notwithstanding, however, this immunity from that which worries us most of all, and notwithstanding Parliament sits longer than we do, Sir Albert Rollit declared in 1894 that "business in the House of Commons had become more and more congested," and that in the case of non-official members 309 bills had been introduced, of which only twenty-three were

passed, and the ministers had hardly better fortune, for, as he said of them, "The list of promises was long, of performances extremely short."

It is curious to notice how tremendous has been the increase in the presentation of bills by members of the House. In 1863–64, in the Thirty-eighth Congress, the number was only 813. Such a number could be dealt with and all of them passed upon and decided. But who could dare to attempt to struggle with 10,378?

Perhaps a knowledge of the facts in this article may cause more reasonable feeling on the part of constituents as to the business which they intrust to their members and enable them to judge more justly of the difficulties in the way of their wishes. All human instrumentalities are imperfect, and while they can be improved they can never meet the wishes of all. If they meet the wishes of the majority they will be fortunate.

Nothing has been said of the loss of time which might be utilized by action which owes its origin to the desire to address not the House, but the constituency; for that seems to be inevitable. It is the same in all countries, and has been the same in all ages. Undoubtedly it serves other purposes than display, and is part of the education of a free people. Still there are times when, business propositions being numerous and the days few, one wishes that eloquence bore a closer resemblance to reasoning and deliberation.

It might as well be admitted at once that the faults of legislative bodies are not the faults of legislators alone, but in some degree of the people themselves. So long as we rate oratory too high and wisdom too low and gauge our representatives by the number of times they get into newspapers, and not by what we ourselves know of their characters and abilities, so long we shall continue the desire for opportunities for display and fail to create the desire for opportunities to do service.

SPEAKERS OF THE HOUSE OF CONGRESS.

Congress.	Years.	Name.	State.	Born.	Died.
1	1789–91	F. A. Muhlenberg	Pennsylvania	1750	1801
2	1791–93	Jonathan Trumbull	Connecticut	1740	1809
3	1793–95	F. A. Muhlenberg	Pennsylvania	1750	1801
4, 5	1795–99	Jonathan Dayton	New Jersey	1760	1824
6	1799–1801	Theo. Sedgwick	Massachusetts	1746	1813
7–9	1801–07	Nathaniel Macon	North Carolina	1757	1837
10, 11	1807–11	Joseph B. Varnum	Massachusetts	1750	1821
12, 13	1811–14	Henry Clay	Kentucky	1777	1852
13	1814–15	Langdon Cheves	South Carolina	1776	1857
14–16	1815–20	Henry Clay	Kentucky	1777	1852
16	1820–21	John W. Taylor	New York	1784	1854
17	1821–23	Philip P. Barbour	Virginia	1783	1841
18	1823–25	Henry Clay	Kentucky	1777	1852
19	1825–27	John W. Taylor	New York	1784	1854
20–23	1827–34	Andrew Stevenson	Virginia	1784	1857
23	1834–35	John Bell	Tennessee	1797	1869
24, 25	1835–39	James K. Polk	Tennessee	1795	1849
26	1839–41	R. N. T. Hunter	Virginia	1809	1887
27	1841–43	John White	Kentucky	1805	1845
28	1843–45	John W. Jones	Virginia	1805	1848
29	1845–47	John W. Davis	Indiana	1799	1850
30	1847–49	Robert C. Winthrop	Massachusetts	1809	1894
31	1849–51	Howell Cobb	Georgia	1815	1868
32, 33	1851–55	Linn Boyd	Kentucky	1800	1859
34	1855–57	Nathaniel P. Banks	Massachusetts	1816	1894
35	1857–59	James L. Orr	South Carolina	1822	1873
36	1859–61	William Pennington	New Jersey	1796	1862
37	1861–63	Galusha A. Grow	Pennsylvania	1823	1907
38–40	1863–69	Schuyler Colfax	Indiana	1823	1885
41–43	1869–75	James G. Blaine	Maine	1830	1893
44	1875–76	Michael C. Kerr	Indiana	1827	1876
44–46	1876–81	Samuel J. Randall	Pennsylvania	1828	1890
47	1881–83	John W. Keifer	Ohio	1836	. . .
48–50	1883–89	John G. Carlisle	Kentucky	1835	1910
51	1889–91	Thomas B. Reed	Maine	1839	1902
52, 53	1891–95	Charles F. Crisp	Georgia	1845	1896
54, 55	1895–99	Thomas B. Reed	Maine	1839	1902
56–58	1899–1903	David B. Henderson	Iowa	1840	1906
58–62	1903–11	Joseph G. Cannon	Illinois	1836	....
62–	1911–	Champ Clark	Missouri	1850	....

Spears, JOHN RANDOLPH, author; born in Ohio, in 1850. His publications include *The History of Our Navy; Our Navy in the War with Spain; History of the American Slave Trade; History of the Mississippi Valley Period of Foreign Control; Life of Anthony Wayne; David G. Farragut; Short Hist. of American Navy;* etc.

Specie Circular, THE, the popular name of an order promulgated July 11, 1836, which produced probably a more intense sensation in the United States than any other political event since the removal of the deposits from the United States Bank. Several orders were issued from the Treasury Department during this year to the receivers and disbursers of the public moneys and to the recognized deposit banks in relation to the receipt and payment of specie. The first of these—Feb. 22, 1836—was intended to diminish the circulation of small bank-notes and to substitute specie, especially gold, for such notes. The receipt of bank-notes of a denomination less than $5 had been prohibited after Sept. 30, 1835; and the present order prohibited their payment to any public officer or creditor. Unless otherwise prescribed by law, no such notes of a less denomination than $10 were to be received or paid after July 4 next ensuing. Deposit banks required the payment of all demands not exceeding $500 to be one-fifth in gold coin, if it should be preferred by the creditor, and they were requested not to issue, after July 4, notes less than $5, nor after March 3, 1837, less than $10. The stated object of this regulation was "to render the currency of the country more safe, sound, and uniform."

The famous specie circular followed the foregoing order. By this circular the Secretary of the Treasury required that payment for public lands should be made in specie, with an exception, till Dec. 15, 1836, in favor of actual settlers and actual residents of the State in which the lands were sold. There had been a speculation in land to an extent never before known, owing to the facilities of obtaining bank accommodations. The annual receipt from sales of the public lands had risen within a few years from less than $4,000,000 to three and four times that amount. These lands were paid for with paper money, issued mostly by banks in widely distant States, and therefore not likely to be presented soon for redemption. This circular was issued one week after the adjournment of Congress. Senator Benton declared that it was purposely withheld to avoid any interference by Congress, as a majority of both Houses were known to oppose the measure, as well as a majority of the President's cabinet. As a result of this order the banks found themselves unable to make their debtors pay in gold or silver, and unable to pay their own notes in coin. Then followed the widespread suspension of State banks. In his message to Congress, Dec. 5, 1836, President Jackson defended the specie circular and the destruction of the United States bank as salutary measures, and pronounced the State banks fully equal to the former in transferring the public's moneys.

A joint resolution to rescind the treasury order of July 11, 1836, was introduced into the Senate, and after being modified in committees passed both Houses. It was sent to the President, who returned it with a statement that he desired to refer it to the Attorney-General, as its provisions were "complex and uncertain," and that officer decided that under the President's view, "it would not be proper to approve a bill so liable to a diversity of interpretations."

Specie Payments. The banks suspended specie payments during the War of 1812–15. After its close a new National Bank had been created, which became the great controller and regulator of the finances of the country. The public money had been intrusted to the keeping of about 100 local deposit banks, including all of much account in the South and West. The Secretary of the Treasury (Crawford), early in 1816, resolved on enforcing the resumption of specie payments, and, to induce the banks to concur in the measure, he offered to let these deposits lie till the middle of the year, and then draw out the money only as it might be needed for current expenditures. If they did not accede to this proposition, he threatened to transfer these balances at once to the new National Bank. The latter also promised its indulgence and support in the scheme of resumption; and, under the circumstances, the local banks did not vent-

ure to refuse. By the aid of a loan of $500,000 from the new bank, whose notes now began to make their appearance, and after a suspension of specie payments for more than two years by the government and the banks, resumption was secured.

July 11, 1836, President Jackson ordered a circular drafted which directed that gold and silver only would be received in payment for public lands. (See article SPECIE CIRCULAR.) Congress passed a bill rescinding this "specie circular," but Jackson killed it by a pocket veto. The BANK OF THE UNITED STATES (*q. v.*), through Jackson's hostility, was winding up its business at this time. Bankers and borrowers alike had been reckless. Most of the banks had no specie to redeem their notes. There was a universal suspension of specie payments which led to the great financial crash of 1837. A feverish rise in prices ensued. Flour, which had been $5 a barrel in 1834, shot up to $11 in 1837, corn rose from 53 cents per bushel to $1.15, and in February and March there had been bread-riots in New York and elsewhere. The country had all the elements of richness and prosperity, but it went staggering and bewildered through its season of bitter ruin until gradually specie payments were resumed.

In 1857 the failure of the Ohio Life and Trust Company on Aug. 24th precipitated the panic of 1857, and led to the suspension of specie payments, but the country rallied and was almost normal in 1858.

The outbreak of the Civil War soon brought about the absolute suspension of specie payments. (See article GOLD.)

On Jan. 7, 1875, Congress passed a bill fixing the time for the government and banks of the United States to resume specie payment at Jan. 1, 1879. The resumption took place on that day with great ease, the United States treasury and the banks of the country generally receiving more gold on deposit than they paid out for circulation. With that resumption began a rapid improvement in the business affairs of the country. It marked the end of the commercial depression consequent upon the revulsion and panic of 1873. The prophecies of evil to the country utterly failed of fulfilment.

Speed, JAMES, jurist; born in Jefferson county, Ky., March 11, 1812; graduated at St. Joseph's College, Bardstown, in 1828, and began practising law in Louisville. He was an intimate friend of Abraham Lincoln from early manhood; and immediately prior to and during the Civil War he did much to retain Kentucky in the Union, and to organize and forward troops to the National army. In 1864 he was appointed Attorney-General of the United States, and held the office till his opposition to the administration of President Johnson caused him to resign in 1866. He was a delegate to the National Republican Conventions in 1872 and 1876; and in 1875 resumed the law professorship in the University of Louisville. He died in Jefferson county, Ky., June 25, 1887.

Speer, EMORY, jurist; born in Culloden, Ga., Sept. 3, 1848; served in the Confederate army; graduated at the University of Georgia and admitted to the bar in 1869; member of Congress in 1879–83; and United States attorney in 1883–85. In the latter year he was appointed United States judge for the southern district of Georgia. He is the author of *Removal of Causes from State to United States Courts* and *Lectures on the Constitution of the United States.*

Spelling Reform. An attempt to simplify the present form of spelling certain words, advocated by several learned societies in the United States, England, and Canada, and especially promoted by the American Spelling Reform Association. In 1884 the latter body published a set of rules on which it based its proposed reform, and in 1906 Andrew Carnegie provided funds for the organization and work of a Simplified Spelling Board, composed of prominent scholars and business specialists. In March, 1906, the board published a list of some three hundred words spelled in two or more different ways with the recommendation that the simpler form be used in each case. Jan. 30, 1908, the board published a second list consisting of seventy-five amended spellings and of six classified lists coming under two broad general rules. The amended spelling list follows:

NEW FORM.	OLD FORM.
ake	ache
bedsted	bedstead

NEW FORM.	OLD FORM.
boro	borough
campain	campaign
quire	choir
colleag	colleague
condit	conduit
counterfit	counterfeit
curteous	courteous
curtesy	courtesy
eg	egg
excede	exceed
foren	foreign
forfit	forfeit
furlo	furlough
harang	harangue
hight	height
leag	league
tisic	phthisic
tisis	phthisis
procede	proceed
sithe	scythe
siv	sieve
slight	sleight
solem	solemn
soveren	sovereign
succede	succeed
surfit	surfeit
tung	tongue
wier	weir
wierd	weird

Drop the b in crumb, debt, debtor, doubt, dumb, indebted, lamb, limb, numb, redoubt, redoubtable, redoubted, thumb.

Substitute f for ph in alphabet, autograph, bibliography, biography, camphor, cipher, diaphragm, pamphlet, paragraph, phonetic, phonograph, photograph, telegraph, telephone.

Drop the h in aghast, ghastly, ghost.

Drop the silent letter in aisle, autumn, build, building, cocoa, co'umn, guard, guardian, island, isle, scent, scion, scissors, yeoman, etc.

The other lists give examples of the dropping of the silent final e in words ending in ile simplified to il, ine to in, ise to is, ite to it, ive to iv, and ed to t. The headquarters of the Simplified Spelling Board are at No. 1 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y. Any one interested in spelling reform can obtain lists of the proposed changes from the committee.

Spelman, HENRY, colonist; born in England about 1600; was taken to Virginia in 1609; was one of the party under Captain Ratcliff who went in search of food in 1614, all of whom excepting two were slain by the Indians. Spelman, who was rescued by Pocahontas, lived with the Indians for a number of years and until he was taken from Jopassus, the brother of Powhatan, by a second party of whites who had gone up the Potomac for corn. During his life among the Indians he learned their language and became an interpreter between them and the English. He wrote a *Relation of Virginia.* He was killed by Indians in 1622.

Spencer, JESSE AMES, clergyman; born in Hyde Park, N. Y., June 17, 1816; graduated at Columbia College in 1837, and at the Episcopal Theological Seminary in 1840; was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church, July 28, 1841; profferror of Greek language and literature in the College of the City of New York in 1869–79. His publications include *History of the United States from the Earliest Period to the Death of President Lincoln; Sketch of the History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States,* etc. He died in Passaic, N. J., Sept. 2, 1898.

Spencer, JOHN CANFIELD, lawyer; born in Hudson, N. Y., Jan. 8, 1788; graduated at Union College in 1806; admitted to the bar in 1809; master in chancery in 1811; judge-advocate-general in the army in 1813; and district attorney in 1815. In 1817–19 he was a Democratic Representative in Congress, and during this period drew up the report of the committee appointed to examine into the affairs of the United States Bank. During 1820–28 he served in the two branches of the State legislature, becoming the recognized leader of the Clinton party in the senate. On Oct. 12, 1841, he was appointed Secretary of War; on March 3, 1843, was transferred to the Treasury Department; and on May 2, 1844, resigned because of opposition to the annexation of Texas, and resumed private practice. He died in Albany, N. Y., May 18, 1855. See MACKENZIE, ALEXANDER SLIDELL; SOMERS, THE.

Spencer, JOSEPH, military officer; born in East Haddam, Conn., in 1714; served as a lieutenant-colonel in the French and Indian War, having previously held the office of probate judge. In 1766 he was

a member of the governor's council, and in June, 1775, Congress appointed him one of the brigadier-generals of the Continental army. In August, 1776, he was promoted to major-general. He resigned in June, 1778, and the next year was elected to Congress. In 1780 he was elected to the State council, and held that place by annual election, until his death in East Haddam, Jan. 13, 1789.

Spies, AUGUST VINCENT THEODORE, anarchist; born in Landeck, Germany, Dec. 10, 1855; came to the United States in 1871, and found work as an upholsterer in Chicago, Ill. He joined the socialists in 1876; became publisher of the *Arbeiter-Zeitung* in 1880, and its editor in 1884. In his speeches as well as his paper he advocated anarchy and denounced the government. On May 3, 1886, strikes and mobs succeeded in closing a majority of the factories in Chicago. A crowd numbering about 12,000 men, carrying the American flag, attacked the men who had remained at work. The police, after shooting five strikers and arresting eleven, succeeded in dispersing the rest. Spies immediately issued a *Revenge Circular*, calling on workingmen to arm themselves to resist the police. At the same time another leaflet was circulated urging workingmen to assemble fully armed in Haymarket Square on the following day (May 4). On the evening of that day a large crowd gathered and 180 policemen advanced to disperse them, when a bomb was thrown into the midst of the officers, killing one and wounding sixty-two, several of whom afterwards died. Many arrests were made of those who were supposed to have been implicated in the outrage. All of these were discharged excepting Spies, George Engel, Oscar Neebe, Adolph Fischer, Louis Lingg, Michael Schwab, and Samuel Fielden. Later Albert R. Parsons, who had been indicted with the others for murder but escaped, gave himself up. On Sept. 9, 1887, Louis Lingg committed suicide by exploding dynamite in his mouth. Spies, Engel, Fischer, and Parsons were hanged on Nov. 11, 1887. Neebe, Schwab, and Fielden, who were sentenced to prison for life, were pardoned by Governor Altgeld, June 26, 1893.

Spinner, FRANCIS ELIAS, financier; born in German Flats, N. Y., Jan. 21, 1802; engaged in mercantile business in 1822; was cashier of the Mohawk Valley Bank in 1839–59; auditor and deputy naval officer of the port of New York in 1845–49; member of Congress in 1854–61; and there was chairman of the committee on accounts at the close of his congressional career. He was treasurer of the United States from March 16, 1861, to June 30, 1875, when he resigned and settled in Jacksonville, Fla.; inaugurated the employment of women in the Treasury Department. When his resignation was accepted his accounts were specially examined at his own request, and an apparent discrepancy of one cent was found, but on a re-examination it was discovered that there was an even balance. He died in Jacksonville, Fla., Dec. 31, 1890.

Spiritualism, or **Spiritism,** words applied to the belief that certain phenomena or visible manifestations of power are produced by the spirits of the dead. These phenomena have been witnessed and commented upon in all ages; notable instances within the last 250 years at Woodstock, 1649; at Tedworth, 1661; at the Epworth parsonage, in the family of Mr. Wesley, the father of John Wesley, the founder of Methodism; the case of the Cock-lane ghost, in London; at Sunderland, at the residence of Mr. Jobson, 1839 (all these in England). The Fox sisters in the United States, 1848 (noted below), and, as some suppose, in the Salem witchcraft cases of 1692. They have been attributed to diabolical agencies. It is claimed that under favorable circumstances, by a force apparently residing in the subject itself, and with no external source, inanimate objects (articles of furniture, etc.) are moved, rappings are heard, articles disappear from one closed apartment to appear in another, writing is produced purporting to be by spirits of the dead, and apparitions of the dead are recognized by voice and feature.

Multitudes of people, including many of education and intelligence, have embraced the vague beliefs taught by professional mediums; but the teachers have never agreed upon any coherent system of doctrine, nor have their practices been satisfactorily distinguished from delusion and imposture by scientific tests. Emmanuel Swedenborg (1688–1772) asserted his in-

telligent communion with departed spirits and his direct knowledge of a spiritual world, reciting at length his detailed personal experience. The more recent forms of spiritualism may be said to have begun in Hydeville, Wayne co., N. Y., in 1848, when the daughters of John D. Fox, Margaret (1834–93) and Kate (1836–92), first practised what is known as "spirit-rappings." From Hydeville, Fox soon after removed to Rochester. The excitement aroused by the rappings soon spread far and wide. Many "mediums" arose professing similar powers. Andrew Jackson Davis published *Principles of Nature*, etc., 1845, said to have been dictated to the Rev. William Fishbough in New York City, while the author was in a clairvoyant or trance state; many other works since on a variety of subjects, all ascribed to spirit dictation, but of no scientific value. Judge John W. Edmonds, of New York (1799–1874), adopted the belief in 1851, and published a work on *Spiritualism*, 1853–55, as did Dr. Robert Hare (1781–1858) of Philadelphia, who published (1855) *Spiritual Manifestations Scientifically Demonstrated;* among other noted persons who have avowed their belief that the phenomena are of spirit origin are Dr. Robert Chambers, Robert Owen (1771–1858) and his son, Robert Dale Owen, all of whom wrote on the subject. Of the many "mediums" (channels of communications) none ever attained to the celebrity, as a medium of this power, of Daniel D. Home (born 1833; died harmlessly insane, 1886; published *Incidents of My Life*, 1863).

A society termed "The London Society for Psychical Research," was founded in 1882, under the presidency of Prof. H. Sidgwick, of Cambridge University, for the purpose of investigating that large group of debatable phenomena known as mesmeric, hypnotic, psychic, and spiritualistic. Reports of a large number of varied and careful experiments in induced telepathic communication are published in their *Proceedings;* branches of this society have been established elsewhere, notably in the United States. In this connection also an international congress of experimental psychology has been formed: First meetings held in Paris, 1889; second, at University College, London, 1893; the third at Munich in 1896. In a report of this congress, 1893, it was stated that in a census of hallucinations undertaken by 410 members of the congress, 17,000 answers were obtained from Great Britain, France, America, Germany, etc., to the question, "Have you ever, while in good health and believing yourself to be awake, seen the figure of a person or animated object, or heard a voice which was not in your view referable to any external physical cause?" The answers in the negative numbered 15,311, and those in the affirmative 1,689; out of these latter, after careful investigation, the committee classed 348 as actual apparitions of living persons, 155 of dead people, 273 as unrecognized. A remarkable class of cases was that of collective apparitions, the same hallucination being experienced by two or more persons at the same time and place. Some hold that all psychic phenomena, normal and abnormal, whether manifested as mesmerism, hypnotism, somnambulism, trance, spiritism, demonology or witchcraft, genius or insanity, are in a way related, and are to be classed under some general law of nature yet to be discovered, which will withdraw them from the domain of the supernatural.

The National Spiritualists' Association of the United States of America and Dominion of Canada was organized Sept. 29, 1893, in Chicago, Ill., and incorporated Nov. 1, 1893, under the laws of the District of Columbia, where its permanent headquarters were established. Its objects are: "The organization of the various spiritualist societies of the United States and Canada into one general association, for the purpose of mutual aid and co-operation, in benevolent, charitable, educational, literary, musical, scientific, religious, and missionary purposes, and enterprises germane to the phenomena, science, philosophy, and religion of spiritualism." Statistics of the National Association published in 1911 gave the following details: Active working local societies, 600; State associations, 22; other local societies meeting at irregular intervals, 250; public meetings not organized as societies, 225; camp-meeting associations, 32; academy for liberal education, 1; churches and temples, 150; membership of avowed spiritualists, 200,000; unidenti-

fied with organized societies, but believers in the philosophy and phenomena, and frequent attendants upon public services, 1,500,000 to 2,000,000. A host of people from every walk in life, impossible of exact enumeration, are investigating psychic truths through mediums. Number of public mediums, 1,500; private mediums, many thousands; ordained ministers, 400; total valuation of church, temple, and camp-meeting property, $2,000,000. The headquarters of the National Association are at 600 Pennsylvania Ave., Washington, D. C.

The membership of the National Spiritualists' Association consists of spiritualist societies only. Twelve regular periodicals, weeklies, and monthlies are published in the interest of spiritualism.

Spofford, AINSWORTH RAND, librarian; born in Gilmanton, N. H., Sept. 12, 1825; removed to Cincinnati, O., where he became a publisher and bookseller; was first assistant librarian of the Congressional Library in 1861–64; librarian-in-chief in 1864–97; then became chief assistant librarian. He was the editor of the *Annual American Almanac,* 1878–89; *Catalogues of the Congressional Library,* etc., and the author of *Practical Manual of Parliamentary Rules; A Book for All Readers,* etc. He died Aug. 1, 1908.

Spoils System, The. See CURTIS, GEORGE WILLIAM.

Spoliation Claims. Bonaparte declared, in 1810, that no trade would be allowed with the allies of France in which France herself was forbidden to participate. In the ports of Spain under French control, of Holland, and at Naples, a large number of American vessels and a great amount of American property were seized; also at Hamburg, in Denmark, and in the Baltic ports, it being alleged that many American and many British vessels were employed in bringing British produce from British ports under forged papers seeming to show that the property and vessels were American, directly from the United States. The seizures were, therefore, made indiscriminately, and a vast amount of *bona-fide* American property was thus lost. The seizures at Naples were particularly piratical, for the ships were lured into that port by a special proclamation of King Joachim Murat. These spoliations constituted the basis of claims subsequently made upon, and settled by, France and Naples in 1836 under Jackson's Administration. The only country in Europe into whose ports American vessels might enter with safety was Russia.

The War of 1812–15 wiped out all American claims for commercial spoliations against England. Those against France, Spain, Holland, Naples, and Denmark remained to be settled. Gallatin, at Paris, and Eustis, at The Hague, were instructed to press the subject. William Pinkney, former ambassador at London, appointed in Bayard's place as minister to Russia, was also commissioned to take Naples in his way, and to ask payment for American vessels and cargoes formerly confiscated by Murat, the Napoleonic sovereign. The restored Bourbon government demurred. The demand, they said, had never been pressed upon Murat himself, and they disclaimed any responsibility for the acts of one whom they regarded as a usurper, by whom they had suffered more than had the Americans. Notwithstanding an American ship-of-war—the *Washington,* seventy-four guns — and several armed sloops were in the Bay of Naples, Pinkney could not obtain any recognition of the claims, and left for Russia.

Spooner, ALDEN JEREMIAH, historian; born in Sag Harbor, N. Y., Feb. 2, 1810; was admitted to the bar and practised law in Brooklyn. In 1863 he founded the Long Island Historical Society. He edited with notes and memoirs Gabriel Furman's *Notes, Geographical and Historical, Relating to the Town of Brooklyn, and Silas Wood's Sketch of the First Settlement of the Several Towns on Long Island.* He died in Hempstead, L. I., Aug. 2, 1881.

Spooner, JOHN COIT, legislator; born in Lawrenceburg, Ind., Jan. 6, 1843; accompanied his father's family to Madison, Wis., in 1859; graduated at the Wisconsin State University in 1864; entered the Union army and became major of the 50th Wisconsin Volunteers, and was private and military secretary to Gov. LUCIUS FAIRCHILD (*q. v.*). He was admitted to the bar in 1867: was associate Attorney-General in 1867–70; removed to Hudson, Wis., in the latter year, and practised law there till 1884; and was elected United

States Senator to succeed Angus Cameron for the term beginning March 4, 1885. On the expiration of his term (1891) he was succeeded by William F. Vilas, Democrat. In 1892 he was defeated as Republican candidate for governor of Wisconsin; in the following year removed to Madison, and on Jan. 27, 1897, was again elected United States Senator to succeed Senator Vilas. He held the seat until May 1, 1907, when he resigned to engage in law practice in New York City. During his Senatorial career, as member of the Committee on Relations with Cuba, he was of great assistance to President McKinley in the conduct of Cuban affairs. After leaving Congress he was offered the appointments of Secretary of the Interior, member of the Anglo-American Joint High Commission, and Attorney-General of the United States, but declined each.

Spooner, LYSANDER, lawyer; born in Athol, Mass., Jan. 19, 1808; was instrumental in inducing Congress in 1851 to pass an act reducing letter-postage by establishing a private post from Boston to New York and from New York to Washington. His publications include *Credit; Currency and Banking; Poverty, Causes and Cure; A Defence for Fugitive Slaves; A New System of Paper Currency; Our Financiers; Gold and Silver as Standards of Value; Law of Prices; Letter to Grover Cleveland on His False Inaugural Address,* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., May 14, 1887.

Spotts, JAMES HANNA, naval officer; born in Fort Johnson, Wilmington Harbor, N. C., March 11, 1822; joined the navy in 1837; took part in the two battles with the natives on the island of Sumatra occasioned by piratical acts against American ships about 1839; served in the Mexican War; was promoted lieutenant in 1851. When the Civil War broke out he sided with the North and proved himself a capable officer; was promoted rear-admiral in May, 1881, and placed in command of the South Atlantic Squadron. He died in Port Stanley, Falkland Islands, March 9, 1882.

Spottswood, SIR ALEXANDER, colonial governor; born in Tangier, Africa, in 1676; served in the army under the Duke of Marlborough; was wounded in the battle of Blenheim; was governor of Virginia in 1710–23. In 1736 he was colonial postmaster, and in 1739 commander of the forces intended to operate against Florida. The French, in pursuance of their policy for spreading their dominions in America, had always concealed from the English all knowledge of the country beyond the Appalachian range of mountains. In 1716 Governor Spottswood resolved to acquire some knowledge of that mysterious region, and he went in person, with a few attendants, over those lofty ranges to the head-waters of the Tennessee and Kentucky rivers. He made the first certain discovery of a passage through those everlasting hills; but the country was very little known to Europeans until the middle of the eighteenth century. Spottswood was a zealous friend of the College of William and Mary and of efforts to christianize the Indians. He died in Annapolis, Md., June 7, 1740.

Spottsylvania Court-House. BATTLE OF. Lee was evidently satisfied, at the close of the battle of the Wilderness in 1864, that he could not maintain a further contest with Grant on the ground he (Lee) had chosen, so he retired beyond intrenchments, where he was found standing on the defensive by the skirmish-line of the Nationals, sent out at daybreak on Saturday morning, May 7. There had been sharp skirmishing the day before. A charge had been made on Hancock's corps, when 700 of his cavalry were captured. Grant had no desire to renew the conflict there, and after dark that night he put his army in motion towards Spottsylvania Court-house, 15 miles southeast from the battle-field. Warren and Sedgwick took the direct route by the Brock road, and Hancock and Burnside, with the trains, by a road farther east. The march was slow, for many obstacles—such as felled trees and opposing troops—were in the way. Lee had anticipated Grant's movement, and was pushing on by a parallel road towards the same destination. His advance, under General Anderson, continued the march all night, and reached the vicinity of Spottsylvania Court-house and intrenched before Warren came up. By the evening of the 8th Lee's whole force was intrenched on a ridge around Spottsylvania Court-house, facing north and east.

The following day was spent by Grant in making dispositions for attack, and by

SCENE OF SEDGWICK'S DEATH.

Lee in strengthening his position. There had been sharp fighting the day before (May 8) between Warren and a force of the Confederates. Warren held his position until relief arrived from Sedgwick, when the Confederates were repulsed. The Nationals lost about 1,300 men. The commanders of several regiments fell. One Michigan regiment went into battle with 200 men, and came out with 23. The day was intensely hot, and many suffered from sunstroke. Monday, the 9th, was comparatively quiet in the morning. There was skirmishing nearly all day. In the afternoon General Sedgwick was killed by the bullet of a sharp-shooter while superintending the planting of cannon on a redoubt, and his command of the 6th Corps devolved on Gen. H. G. Wright. Towards night Grant ordered another advance on the Confederates. The divisions of Gibbon and Birney, of Hancock's corps, crossed a branch of the Po River, and had a severe struggle. Hancock attempted to capture a wagon-train. He had made a lodgment with three divisions, and was pushing forward, when he was recalled for other service. On his return he was attacked, and lost heavily. The woods between a part of his troops and the river had taken fire, and many of his men perished in the flames.

That night Lee's army occupied Spottsylvania Court-house, and stood squarely across the path of the intended march of the Army of the Potomac towards Richmond. Everything was in readiness for battle on the morning of the 10th. The main attack by the Nationals was against Lee's left centre, strongly intrenched on Laurel Hill, wooded, and surrounded by a dense growth of cedar. It was the strongest point in the Confederate line. In two attacks the Nationals were repulsed with heavy loss. At 5 P.M. the 2d and 5th Corps moved to the attack. The conflict was fearful, and the Nationals were repulsed. The assault was repeated an hour later, with a similar result. In the two attacks, nearly 6,000 Unionists had fallen, while not more than 600 of the Confederates had been disabled. The

enterprise was abandoned. Farther to the left, a portion of the 6th Corps carried the first line of the Confederate intrenchments, and captured 900 prisoners and several guns. Then the first day's real battle at Spottsylvania Court-house was ended.

On the morning of the 11th Grant wrote to the Secretary of War: "We have now ended the sixth day of very heavy fighting. The result to this time is much in our favor. Our losses have been heavy, as well as those of the enemy. I think those of the enemy must be greater. We have taken over 5,000 prisoners by battle, while he has taken from us but few, except stragglers. I propose to fight it out on this line, if it takes all summer." The 11th was mostly spent in preparing for another battle. Grant determined to strike Lee's right centre where it appeared most vulnerable. The night was very dark and stormy. He moved at midnight, and Hancock took a position within 1,200 yards of the Confederate line. He stormed it at 4 A.M. on the 12th. He burst through the lines, and, after a hand-to-hand conflict inside the trenches, captured 4,000 men, and drove his adversaries through the woods towards the village. At the second line of intrenchments Hancock's men, having lost their organization, were forced to retire to the first, which they held with the aid of the 6th Corps. Five times during the day Lee attempted to dislodge Hancock, but was repulsed each time, with heavy loss. So fierce had been the battle that one-half of the forest within range of the musketry was destroyed by bullet-wounds. A tree 18 inches in diameter was entirely cut in two by musket-balls. The scene of the engagement was afterwards known as "the field of the bloody angle." Meanwhile Burnside, on the

SPOTTSYLVANIA COURT-HOUSE.

THE FIELD OF THE BLOODY ANGLE.

left, and Warren, on the right, had made attacks on Lee's wings, but were repulsed. At midnight Lee withdrew to his second line, and Hancock finally held the works he had captured in the morning, with twenty-two guns. The official report of the National losses gave a total of 29,410 men; of whom 269 officers and 3,019 enlisted men were killed, and nearly 7,000 had been made prisoners. See WILDERNESS, BATTLE OF THE.

Sprague, JOHN TITCOMB, military officer; born in Newburyport, Mass., July 3, 1810; entered the United States marine corps in 1834; served in the Indian campaign in Florida in a manner that won him two promotions; commissioned major May 14, 1861; and while stationed in Texas was captured by General Twigg and released on parole. He was adjutant-general of New York till 1865, when he was commissioned colonel of the 7th United States Infantry; served for a time in Florida; then became military governor there, and retired from the army in 1870. He published *Origin, Progress, and Conclusion of the Florida War.* He died in New York City, Sept. 6, 1878.

Sprague, WILLIAM, governor; born in Cranston, R. I., Sept. 12, 1831; was governor of Rhode Island in 1860–63; raised a battery of light artillery, with which he took part in the battle of Bull Run; refused a commission of brigadier-general of volunteers; and was United States Senator in 1863–75. For many years he was one of the most extensive manufacturers.

Spring Hill, ENGAGEMENT AT. On Nov. 29, 1864, an engagement was fought at Spring Hill, in Maury county, Tenn., 10 miles from Franklin and 12 miles north of Columbia, between National troops under General Schofield and a Confederate army under General Hood. Hood had made a rapid march upon Columbia in the hope of gaining the rear of Schofield, then at Pulaski; but Schofield returned to Columbia, thus checking Hood's plan. For several days the two armies remained near each other at Columbia. On the 28th Hood made another attempt to gain Schofield's rear by a movement to Spring Hill; but General Stanley, who was sent with his division and a large part of his artillery to Spring Hill, reached that place in time to prevent the Confederates from occupying it. During the afternoon of Nov. 29 Stanley's and Hood's advanced troops had a considerable engagement, which resulted in further checking Hood's plans. At night the National troops left Spring Hill for Franklin, where a notable battle was fought. See FRANKLIN, BATTLE AT.

Springer, WILLIAM MCKENDREE, jurist; born in New Lebanon, Ind., May 30, 1836; graduated at Indiana University in 1858; admitted to the bar in 1859 and practised in Springfield, Ill.; member of Congress in 1875–95. On Dec. 15 of the former year he introduced a resolution in the House declaring "the precedent of retiring from the Presidential office after the second term has become a part of our republican system, and any departure from this time-honored custom would be unwise, unpatriotic, and fraught with peril to our free institutions." It is believed that the adoption of this resolution by 233 yeas against 18 nays largely contributed to the loss by President Grant of a third nomination in 1876. Judge Springer was chief-justice of the United States Court of Appeals in 1895–99. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 4, 1903.

Springfield, Mass., is widely noted as the seat of the United States Armory, the most extensive fire-arms manufactory in the country; and has extensive manufactures of cotton and woollen goods, machinery, etc. It was organized as a town May 14, 1636, and for several years it was uncertain whether it belonged to Massachusetts or Connecticut. Pop. (1900), 62,059; (1910) 88,926.

Springfield, Mo., is on the summit of the Ozark Mountains in a rich lead and zinc section. In the early part of the Civil War several battles occurred in the city and vicinity, in one of which (known as the battle of Wilson's Creek, Aug. 10, 1861) the Federal general, Nathaniel Lyon, was defeated and killed. On Jan. 8, 1863, General Marmaduke, with 3,000 Confederates, attacked the city, which was defended by Generals Brown and Hoyt with some 2,000 National troops. After five hours' conflict the Confederates retired with the loss of over 200 men. The Nationals lost about the same number.

Springfield, N. J., BATTLE OF. Military movements at the North, in 1780, exhibited

scarcely any offensive operations, yet there were some stirring events occurring occasionally. There was a British invasion of New Jersey. On June 6 (before the arrival of General Clinton from Charleston), General Knyphausen despatched

PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF SPRINGFIELD.

General Matthews from Staten Island, with about 5,000 men, to penetrate New Jersey. They took possession of Elizabethtown (June 7), and burned Connecticut Farms (then a hamlet, and afterwards the village of Union), on the road from Elizabethtown to Springfield. When the invaders arrived at the latter place, they met detachments which had come down from Washington's camp at Morristown, and by them were driven back to the coast, where they remained a fortnight, until the arrival of Clinton from the South, who, with additional troops, joined Matthews (June 22). After a severe engagement (June 23, 1780), during which the British forced the bridge over the Rahway, the invaders were defeated and driven back. When they began their retreat, they set fire to the village. The British lost, it was estimated, in killed and wounded, during the entire invasion, about 300 men; the loss of the Americans was less than 100. The British were 6,000 strong; the Americans only 1,500; but the latter were strongly posted on heights.

Spring-Rice, Sir Cecil Arthur, diplomat; born in London, England, Feb. 27, 1859; was graduated at Balliol College, Oxford, in 1882; early entered diplomatic service; secretary at Washington, Brussels, Tokio, Berlin, and Constantinople; *chargé d'affaires* at Teheran in 1900; secretary of embassy at St. Petersburg in 1903–06; minister to Persia in 1906–08; to Sweden in 1908–13; and succeeded Viscount Bryce as British ambassador to the United States in May, 1913. His official conduct in the trying months of the European war was satisfactory to the American administration.

Squatter, or Popular, Sovereignty. See State Sovereignty.

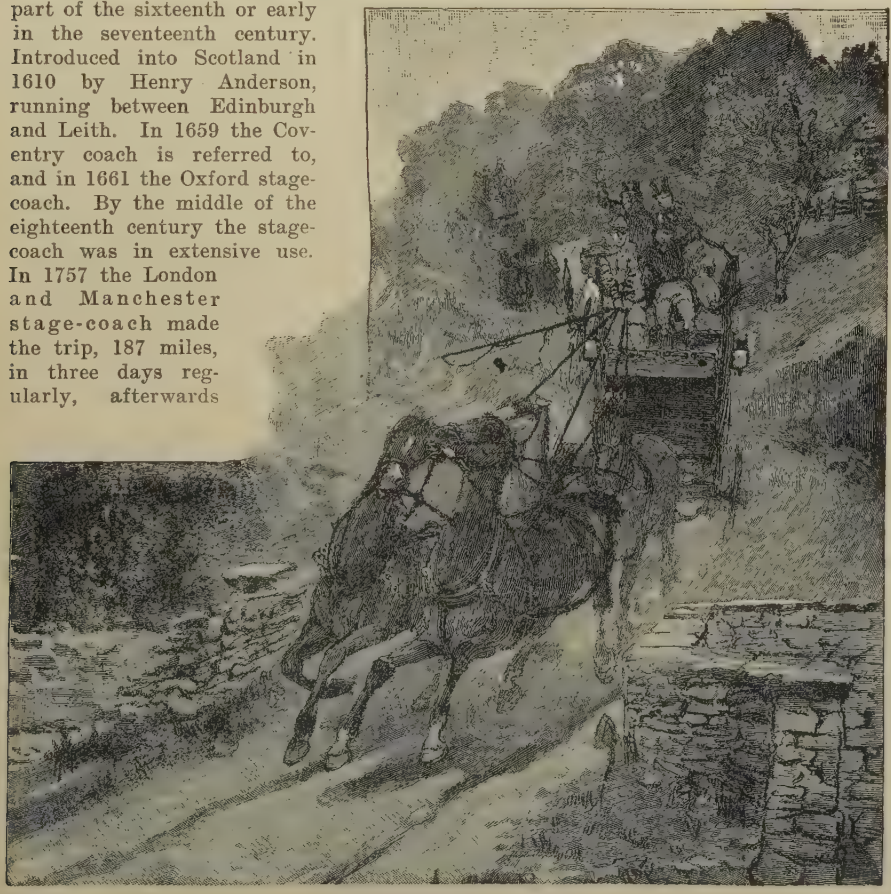
Squier, Ephraim George, historian; born in Bethlehem, N. Y., June 17, 1821; engaged in journalism and civil engineering. From 1845 to 1848 he edited the *Scioto Gazette* at Chillicothe, O., and became familiar with the ancient mounds in the Scioto Valley. In conjunction with Dr. Edward H. Davis, of Ohio, he began a systematic investigation of the aboriginal monuments of the Mississippi Valley, the results of which were published in the first volume of the *Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge.* Thenceforth his life was devoted to researches into the archæology and ethnology of the ancient races of the American continent. In 1848 he was appointed *chargé d'affaires* to the republics of Central America, where he made special efforts towards securing the construction of an interoceanic railway, and afterwards published several works concerning those countries. He was United States commissioner to Peru in 1863–64, and in 1871 became the first president of the Anthropological Institute of New York. Mr. Squier's researches and publications thereon have added greatly to the sum of human knowledge. His publications include *Aboriginal Monuments of the State of New York; Serpent Symbols; Nicaragua: its People, Scenery, and Monuments; Notes on Central America; Waikna, or Adventures on the Mosquito Shore; The States of Central America; Monographs of Authors who have written on the Aboriginal Languages of Central America;* and *Peru: Incidents*

and Explorations in the Land of the Incas. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., April 17, 1888.

Stadacona, an Indian town on the site of Quebec, and the capital of the "King of Canada." See CARTIER, JACQUES.

Staff Corps, GENERAL. See GENERAL STAFF CORPS.

Stage-Coaches. The custom of running stage-coaches from inn to inn in England was introduced from the Continent, but in what year the first stage ran is not known, probably in the latter part of the sixteenth or early in the seventeenth century. Introduced into Scotland in 1610 by Henry Anderson, running between Edinburgh and Leith. In 1659 the Coventry coach is referred to, and in 1661 the Oxford stage-coach. By the middle of the eighteenth century the stage-coach was in extensive use. In 1757 the London and Manchester stage-coach made the trip, 187 miles, in three days regularly, afterwards reduced to nineteen hours, and the London and Edinburgh stage-coach ultimately made the distance between these cities, 400 miles, in forty hours, including all stops, etc., the roads being excellent, the coaches and service admirable, and the number of horses equal to the number of miles—namely, 400—and the relays frequent. The first mail-coach was set up at Bristol by John Palmer, Aug. 2, 1784. In the United States the first stage was run between New York City and Boston, 1732, probably not regularly and not long continued. In 1756 there was one stage-coach running between New York City and Philadelphia, distance ninety miles, time, three days. In 1765 a second stage-coach was put on. In 1790 the line was increased to four coaches, and in 1811 there were four coaches each way



TRAVELLING BY STAGE COACH.

daily. The first line, named the "Expedition," from Philadelphia to Paulus Hook —time, twelve hours; fare, $8; second, "The Diligence"—time, twenty-six hours; fare, $5.50; third, "Accommodation," left Philadelphia at 10 A.M., stopping overnight at Brunswick, N. J., arriving at Paulus Hook 12 M. next day; fare, $4.50. fourth, "Mail-coach," left Philadelphia 1 P.M., travelled all night, arrived at Paulus Hook at 6 A.M. At this time the coaches were poorly constructed for eight to ten passengers, each passenger allowed fourteen lbs. of luggage free—150 lbs. the extent. In later years the stage-coach was improved, but was never agreeable, as the roads were always bad, except in the finest weather.

Stager, ANSON, telegrapher; born in Ontario county, N. Y., April 20, 1825; built a telegraph line from Philadelphia to Harrisburg, and took charge of the first office in Lancaster, Pa., in 1846. When the Civil War began he took charge of the telegraphs in southern Ohio and along the Virginia line, and made a cipher code by which he could secure safe communication with operators. In 1861–68 he was general superintendent of all government telegraphs, and in recognition of his meritorious services was brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers. He died in Chicago, Ill., March 26, 1885.

Staked Plains, or Llano Estacado, extensive table-lands in western Texas and eastern New Mexico, whose surface, gently undulating, is destitute of wood and water; vegetation very scanty. The name is derived from the abundant growth of the *Yucca alœfolia*, or "Spanish daggers," the naked stems of which, growing to the height of 10 feet, resemble stakes.

Stalwarts and Half-breeds, names applied to certain members of the Republican party during the administration of President Grant; the former to those leaders who supported the "machine"; the latter to their opponents. The former were lead by Senator Roscoe Conkling, of New York, who, with other leaders, had acquired control of the distribution of appointive offices under the national government. The Stalwarts proposed General Grant for a third term in 1880, but the convention nominated General Garfield instead. Soon after the inauguration of the President-elect, Senator Conkling quarrelled with the President, and, with his associate from New York, Senator Platt, resigned from the Senate, on the ground that the New York Senators should have been consulted by the President prior to his appointment of influential federal officers in New York State. The two Senators applied to the State legislature for re-election and were beaten. With the assassination of President Garfield and the withdrawal of Senator Conkling from public life the Stalwart faction in the party came to an end.

STAMP ACT, THE

Stamp Act, THE. Laws authorizing the use of stamps, stamped paper, or stamps on packages, bearing fixed rates for the stamps, for raising revenue, were introduced into England, in the reign of William and Mary, from Holland. From that time until now the system has been a favorite one in England for raising revenue. Each stamp represents a tax for a certain sum which must be paid to obtain it. A penalty is imposed upon those attempting to evade it, and the transaction in which it should have been used was declared invalid without it. A stamp duty had never been imposed in the colonies. In 1732 it was proposed, but the great minister, Walpole, said, "I will leave the taxation of America to some of my successors who have more courage than I have." In 1739 Sir William Keith, governor of Pennsylvania, proposed such a tax in that province. Franklin thought it just, as he said in the convention at Albany in 1754; Lieutenant-governor De Lancey proposed it in New York in 1755; and in 1756 Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, urged Parliament to adopt a stamp tax. In 1757 it was proposed to Pitt to tax the colonies. "I will never burn my fingers with an American stamp tax," he said. But George Grenville, Pitt's brother-in-law, bolder than his predecessors, proposed in 1764 a stamp tax to be extended

to the colonies. It was delayed to await suggestions from the latter.

The law required that for every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which should be engrossed, written, or printed any declaration, plea, replication, rejoinder, demurrer, or other pleading, or any copy thereof, in any court of law within the British colonies and plantations in America, a stamp duty should be imposed. Also for all legal documents of every kind, marriage certificates, etc., a stamp duty should be paid. The stamps were printed in embossed letters, sometimes directly upon the paper used, but more generally, for the colonies, on coarse blue paper, such as is known as "tobacco paper." The value of each stamp was indicated upon it, and varied from 3*d.* to £2. The kinds of documents and other papers to be stamped to make them legal numbered fifty-four. To the blue-paper stamps was attached a narrow strip of tinfoil, represented in the larger engraving by the white space. The ends of the foil were passed through the parchment or paper, flattened on the opposite side, and a piece of paper with a rough device and number, seen in the smaller engraving, with a crown and the initials of the King pasted over to secure it.

A STAMP.

In the preamble to the Stamp Act the open avowal was made that its purpose was the "raising of a revenue for defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing his Majesty's dominions in America." This phraseology was rather deceptive. The British treasury had been exhausted not by defending the colonies, but by wars in Europe, and its coffers needed replenishing. This was the real meaning of the Stamp Act, and the Americans clearly perceived it. When accounts of this scheme reached Boston, the newly elected representatives of that town were instructed to use all their efforts "against the pending plan of parliamentary taxation," and for the "repeal of any such acts already passed." These instructions were drawn by Samuel Adams, and contained the first decided protest uttered against this taxation scheme. It was suggested that a combination of all the colonies in opposition to the act would be expedient. A committee of correspondence was appointed to hold communications with the other colonial assemblies, and the political postulate—"Taxation without representation is tyranny"—an idea borrowed from the Dutch, was boldly enunciated in a pamphlet by James Otis, entitled *The Rights of the British Colonies Asserted.* The Assembly also resolved, "That the imposition of duties and taxes by the Parliament of Great Britain upon a people not represented in the House of Commons is absolutely irreconcilable with their rights." Opposition to the measure soon appeared in all the colonies. The people in cities and villages gathered in excited groups and loudly expressed their indignation. The pulpit denounced the scheme, and associations calling themselves the "Sons of Liberty," in every colony, put forth their energies in defence of popular freedom. The press, then assuming much power, spoke out fearlessly. Men appointed by the crown, known as "stamp distributers," were insulted and despised, and not allowed to act. Stamps were seized on their arrival and secreted or burned, and when Nov. 1 arrived—the day on which the law was to take effect—there were no officials courageous enough to attempt to enforce it. The public sentiment had already taken a more dignified tone and assumed an aspect of nationality. A general congress of delegates was called, and met in New York (see STAMP ACT CONGRESS, THE) in October, 1765, and sent out documents boldly asserting the rights of the people. Nov. 1 was observed as a day of fasting and mourning. Funeral processions paraded city streets, and bells tolled funeral knells. The colors of sailing-vessels were trailed at half-mast, and the columns of newspapers exhibited broad black lines. The courts were

A STAMP.

closed, legal marriages ceased, ships remained in port, and for a while all business was suspended. Out of this calm a tempest was evolved. Mobs began to assail the residences of officials and burn distinguished royalists in effigy. Merchants entered into agreements not to import goods from Great Britain, and very soon such a cry of remonstrance from all classes in America assailed the ears of the British ministry, as well as from merchants and manufacturers of London, that the question of repealing the act was raised.

In March, 1766, a protest, prepared by Lord Lyttelton, against the repeal of the Stamp Act, was signed by thirty-three peers. In that House it was maintained that such a strange and unheard-of submission of King, Lords, and Commons to a successful insurrection of the colonies would make the authority of Great Britain contemptible. There were sixty-three members of the House of Lords, including several bishops, who were for subduing the colonies with fire and sword, if necessary; but the vote for repeal stood 105 against 71. Soon afterwards a second protest, containing a vigorous defence of the policy of Grenville, and showing a disposition to enforce the Stamp Act at all hazards, was signed by twenty-eight peers. At that hour of efforts for conciliation five of the bishops "solemnly recorded, on the journal of the House of Lords, their unrelenting enmity to measures of peace."

On March 18, 1766, in pursuance of the provisions of a bill introduced in Parliament by William Pitt, the act was repealed. In the bill was a clause declaratory of the right of Parliament to tax the colonies, which was not acceptable to the latter. Pitt said the repealing bill could not have passed but for this clause, so of two evils he chose the least. The Americans were so pleased, however, with the repeal of the obnoxious act that, in gratitude to the King and to Pitt, statues were erected to them. An equestrian statue of the King was erected in Bowling Green, New York City, and a statue of Pitt in the attitude of speaking was set up at the intersection of Wall and William streets. Another was erected in Charleston, S. C. The King was dissatisfied with the repeal of the Stamp Act, regarding it as "a fatal compliance which had wounded the majesty of England, and planted thorns under his pillow." He scolded Lord North, for he preferred the risk of losing the colonies rather than to yield one iota of his claim to absolute authority over them. See PITT, WILLIAM.

The following is the full text of the Stamp Act, which received the royal signature, March 27, 1765:

Whereas, by an act made in the last session of Parliament, several duties were granted, continued, and appropriated towards defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the British colonies and plantations in America; and whereas it is first necessary that provision be made for raising a further revenue within your Majesty's dominions in America, towards defraying the said expenses; we, your Majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the Commons of Great Britain, in Parliament assembled, have therefore resolved to give and grant unto your Majesty the several rights and duties hereinafter mentioned; and do most humbly beseech your Majesty that it may be enacted. And be it enacted by the King's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that from and after the first day of November, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-five, there shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid unto his Majesty, his heirs and successors, throughout the colonies and plantations in America, which now are, or hereafter may be, under the dominion of his Majesty, his heirs and successors:

1. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any declaration, plea, replication, rejoinder, demurrer, or other pleading, or any copy thereof, in any court of law within the British colonies and plantations in America, a stamp duty of three pence.

2. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any special bail, and appearance upon such bail in any such court, a stamp duty of two shillings.

3. For every skin or piece of vellum or

parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which may be engrossed, written, or printed any petition, bill, or answer, claim, plea, replication, rejoinder, demurrer, or other pleading, in any court of chancery or equity within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp act of one shilling and six pence.

4. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed *any copy* of any petition, bill, answer, claim, plea, replication, rejoinder, demurrer, or other pleading, in any such court, a stamp duty of three pence.

5. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any monition, libel, answer, allegation, inventory, renunciation, in ecclesiastical matters, in any court of probate, court of the ordinary, or other court exercising ecclesiastical jurisdiction within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of one shilling.

6. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any copy of any will (other than the probate thereof), monition, libel, answer, allegation, inventory, or renunciation, in ecclesiastical matters in any such court, a stamp duty of six pence.

7. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any donation, presentation, collation or institution, of or to any benefice, or any writ or instrument for the like purpose, or any register, entry, testimonial, or certificate of any degree taken in any university, academy, college, or seminary of learning, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of two pounds.

8. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any monition, libel, claim, answer, allegation, information, letter of request, execution, renunciation, inventory, or other pleading, in any admiralty court within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of one shilling.

9. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which any copy of any such monition, libel, claim, answer, allegation, information, letter of request, execution, renunciation, inventory, or other pleading shall be engrossed, written, or printed, a stamp duty of six pence.

10. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any appeal, writ of error, writ of dower, *ad quo damnum*, *certiorari*, statute merchant, statute staple, attestation, or certificate, by any officer, or exemplification of any record or proceeding, in any court whatsoever, within the said colonies and plantations (except appeals, writs of error, *certiorari*, attestations, certificates, and exemplifications, for, or relating to, the removal of any proceedings from before a single justice of the peace) a stamp duty of ten shillings.

11. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any writ of covenant for levying fines, writ of entry for suffering a common recovery, or attachment issuing out of or returnable into any court within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of five shilings.

12. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any judgment, decree, or sentence, or dismission, or any record of *nisi prius* or *postea*, in any court within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of four shillings.

13. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any affidavit, common bail, or appearance, interrogatory, deposition, rule, order or warrant of any court, or any *dedimus potestament*, capias subpœna, summons, compulsory citation, commission, recognizance, or any other writ, process, or mandate, issuing out of or returnable into any court, or any office belonging thereto, or any other proceeding therein whatsoever, or any copy thereof, or of any record not hereinbefore charged, within the said colonies and plantations (except warrants relating to criminal matters, and proceedings thereon, or relating thereto), a stamp duty of one shilling.

14. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper,

on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any note or bill of lading, which shall be signed for any kind of goods, wares or merchandise, to be exported from, or any cocket or clearance granted within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of four pence.

15. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed letters of mart or commission for private ships-of-war, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of twenty shillings.

16. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any grant, appointment, or admission of or to any public beneficial office or employment, for the space of one year, or any lesser time, of or above twenty pounds per annum sterling money, in salary, fees, and perquisites, within the said colonies and plantations (except commissions and appointments of officers of the army, navy, ordnance, or militia, of judges, and of justices of the peace), a stamp duty of ten shillings.

17. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which any grant, of any liberty, privilege, or franchise, under the seal or sign manual of any governor, proprietor, or public officer, alone or in conjunction with any other person or persons, or with any council, or any council and assembly, or any exemplification of the same, shall be engrossed, written, or printed within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of six pounds.

18. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any license for retailing spirituous liquors, to be granted to any person who shall take out the same, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of twenty shillings.

19. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any license for retailing of wine, to be granted to any person who shall not take out a license for retailing of spirituous liquors, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of four pounds.

20. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any license for retailing of spirituous liquors, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of three pounds.

21. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any probate of will, letters of administration, or of guardianship for any estate above the value of twenty pounds sterling money, within the British colonies and plantations upon the continent of America, the islands belonging thereto, and the Bermuda and Bahama islands, a stamp duty of five shillings.

22. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any such probate, letters of administration or of guardianship, within all other parts of the British dominions in America, a stamp duty of ten shillings.

23. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any bond for securing the payment of any sum of money, not exceeding the sum of ten pounds sterling money, within the British colonies and plantations upon the continent of America, the islands belonging thereto, and the Bermuda and Bahama islands, a stamp duty of six pence.

24. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any bond for securing the payment of any sum of money above ten pounds and not exceeding twenty pounds sterling money, within such colonies, plantations, and islands, a stamp duty of one shilling.

25. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any bond for securing the payment of any sum of money above twenty pounds and not exceeding forty pounds sterling money, within such colonies and plantations and islands, a stamp duty of one shilling and six pence.

26. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written or

printed any order or warrant for surveying or setting out any quantities of land not exceeding 100 acres, issued by any governor, proprietor, or any public officer, alone or in conjunction with any other person or persons, or with any council, or any council or assembly, with the British colonies and plantations in America, a stamp duty of six pence.

27. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any such order or warrant for surveying or setting out any quantity of land above 100 and not exceeding 200 acres, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of one shilling.

28. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any such order or warrant for surveying or setting out any quantity of land above 200 and not exceeding 320 acres, and in proportion for every such order or warrant for surveying or setting out every other 320 acres, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of one shilling and six pence.

29. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any original grant or any deed, mesne conveyance, or other instrument whatsoever, by which any quantity of land not exceeding 100 acres shall be granted, conveyed, or assigned, within the British colonies and plantations upon the continent of America, the islands belonging thereto, and the Bermuda and Bahama islands (except leases for any term not exceeding the term of twenty-one years), a stamp duty of one shilling and six pence.

30. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any such original grant, or any such deed, mesne conveyance, or other instrument whatsoever, by which any quantity of land above 100 and not exceeding 200 acres shall be granted, conveyed, or assigned, within such colonies, plantations, and islands, a stamp duty of two shillings.

31. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any such original grant, or any such deed, mesne conveyance, or other instrument whatsoever, by which any quantity of land above 200 and not exceeding 320 acres shall be granted, conveyed, or assigned, and in proportion for every such grant, deed, mesne conveyance, or other instrument, granting, conveying, or assigning every other 320 acres, within such colonies, plantations, and islands, a stamp duty of two shillings and six pence.

32. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any such original grant, or any such deed, mesne conveyance, or other instrument whatsoever, by which any quantity of land not exceeding 100 acres shall be granted, conveyed, or assigned, within all other parts of the British dominion in America, a stamp duty of three shillings.

33. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any such original grant, or any such deed, mesne conveyance, or other instrument whatsoever, by which any quantity of land above 100 and not exceeding 200 acres shall be granted, conveyed, or assigned, within the same parts of the said domains, a stamp duty of four shillings.

34. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any such original grant, or any such deed, mesne conveyance, or other instrument whatsoever, by which any quantity of land above 200 and not exceeding 320 acres shall be granted, conveyed, or assigned, and in proportion for every such grant, deed, mesne conveyance, or other instrument, granting, conveying, or assigning every other 320 acres within the same parts of the said dominions, a stamp duty of five shillings.

35. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any grant, appointment, or admission of or to any beneficial office or employment, not hereinbefore charged, above the value of twenty pounds per annum sterling money, in salary, fees, and perquisites, or any exemplification of the

same within the British colonies and plantations upon the continent of America, the islands belonging thereto, and the Bermuda and Bahama islands (except commissions of the officers of the army, navy, ordnance, or militia, and of justices of the peace), a stamp duty of four pounds.

36. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any such grant, appointment, or admission of or to any such public beneficial office or employment, or any exemplification of the same within all other parts of the British dominions in America, a stamp duty of six pounds.

37. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any indenture, lease, conveyance, contract, stipulation, bill of sale, charter party, protest, articles of apprenticeship or covenant (except for the hire of servants not apprentices, and also except such other matters as hereinbefore charged), within the British colonies and plantations in America, a stamp duty of two shillings and six pence.

38. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which any warrant or order for auditing any public accounts, beneficial warrant, order, grant, or certificate, under any public seal, or under the seal or sign manual of any governor, proprietor, or public officer, alone or in conjunction with any person or persons, or with any council, or any council and assembly, not hereinbefore charged, or any passport or letpass, surrender of office, or policy of assurance, which shall be engrossed, written, or printed within the said colonies and plantations (except warrants or orders for the service of the army, navy, ordnance, or militia, and grants of offices under twenty pounds per annum, in salary, fees, and perquisites), a stamp duty of five shillings.

39. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any notarial act, bond, deed, letter of attorney, procuration, mortgage, release, or other obligatory instrument, not hereinbefore charged, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of two shillings.

40. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed any register, entry, or enrolment of any grant, deed, or other instrument whatsoever, hereinbefore charged, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of three pence.

41. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which shall be engrossed, written, or printed grant register, entry, or enrolment of any grant, deed, or other instrument whatsoever, not hereinbefore charged, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of two shillings.

42. And for and upon every pack of playing cards, and all dice, which shall be sold or used within the said colonies and plantations, the several stamp duties following (that is to say):

43. For every pack of cards, one shilling.

44. For every pair of such dice, ten shillings.

45. And for and upon every paper called a pamphlet, and upon every newspaper containing public news or occurrences, which shall be printed, dispersed, and made public, within any of the said colonies and plantations, and for and upon such advertisements as are hereinafter mentioned, the respective duties following (that is to say):

46. For every such pamphlet and paper, contained in a half sheet or any lesser piece of paper, which shall be so printed, a stamp duty of one half-penny for every printed copy thereof.

47. For every such pamphlet and paper (being larger than half a sheet and not exceeding one whole sheet) which shall be printed, a stamp duty of one penny for every printed copy thereof.

48. For every pamphlet and paper, being larger than one whole sheet and not exceeding six sheets in octavo, or in a lesser page, or not exceeding twelve sheets in quarto, or twenty sheets in folio, which shall be so printed, a duty after the rate of one shilling for every sheet of any kind of paper which shall be contained in one printed copy thereof.

49. For every advertisement to be con-

tained in any gazette, newspaper, or other paper, or any pamphlet which shall be so printed, a duty of two shillings.

50. For every almanac, or calendar, for any one particular year, or for any time less than a year, which shall be written or printed on one side only of any one sheet, skin, or piece of paper, parchment, or vellum, within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of two pence.

51. For every other almanac or calendar, for any one particular year, which shall be written or printed within the said colonies and plantations, a stamp duty of four pence.

52. And for every almanac or calendar, written or printed in the said colonies and plantations, to serve for several years, duties to the same amount respectively shall be paid for every such year.

53. For every skin or piece of vellum or parchment, or sheet or piece of paper, on which any instrument, proceeding, or other matter or thing aforesaid shall be engrossed, written, or printed, within the said colonies and plantations, in any other than the English language, a stamp duty double the amount of the respective duties before charged thereon.

54. And there shall be also paid, in the said colonies and plantations, duty of six pence for every twenty shillings, in any sum not exceeding fifty pounds sterling money, which shall be given, paid, contracted, or agreed for with or in relation to any clerk or apprentice, which shall be put or placed to or with any master or mistress, to learn any profession, trade, or employment. II. And also a duty of one shilling for every twenty shillings, in any sum not exceeding fifty pounds, which shall be given, paid, contracted, or agreed for, with or in relation to, any such clerk or apprentice.

55. Finally, the produce of all the aforementioned duties shall be paid into his Majesty's treasury, and there held in reserve, to be used from time to time by the Parliament for the purpose of defraying the expenses necessary for the defence, protection, and security of the said colonies and plantations.

Stamp-Act Congress, The, assembled in New York on Oct. 7, 1765, to consider Grenville's obnoxious scheme of taxation. It was organized by the choice of Timothy Ruggles, of Massachusetts, chairman, and John Cotten, clerk. The following representatives presented their credentials: Massachusetts—James Otis, Oliver Partridge, Timothy Ruggles. New York—Robert R. Livingston, John Cruger, Philip Livingston, William Bayard, Leonard Lispenard. New Jersey—Robert Ogden, Hendrick Fisher, Joseph Borden. Rhode Island — Metcalf Bowler, Henry Ward. Pennsylvania — John Dickinson, John Morton, George Bryan. Delaware—Thomas McKean, Cæsar Rodney, Connecticut—Eliphalet Dyer, David Rowland, William S. Johnson. Maryland—William Murdock, Edward Tilghman, Thomas Ringgold. South Carolina — Thomas Lynch, Christopher Gadsden, John Rutledge. The Congress continued in session fourteen consecutive days, and adopted a *Declaration of Rights*, written by John Cruger, a *Petition to the King*, written by Robert R. Livingston, and a *Memorial to Both Houses of Parliament*, written by James Otis. In all these the principles which governed the leaders in the Revolutionary War soon afterwards were conspicuous. The proceedings were signed by all the delegates excepting Ruggles and Ogden, who were afterwards active loyalists or Tories.

Stanbery, Henry, statesman; born in New York City, Feb. 20, 1803; graduated at Washington College, Pa., in 1819; admitted to the bar in 1824, and began practice in Lancaster county, O. He was appointed Attorney-General of the United States by President Johnson in 1866. When the latter's impeachment trial was impending he resigned his office and became one of the counsel for the defendant. He died in New York City, June 26, 1881.

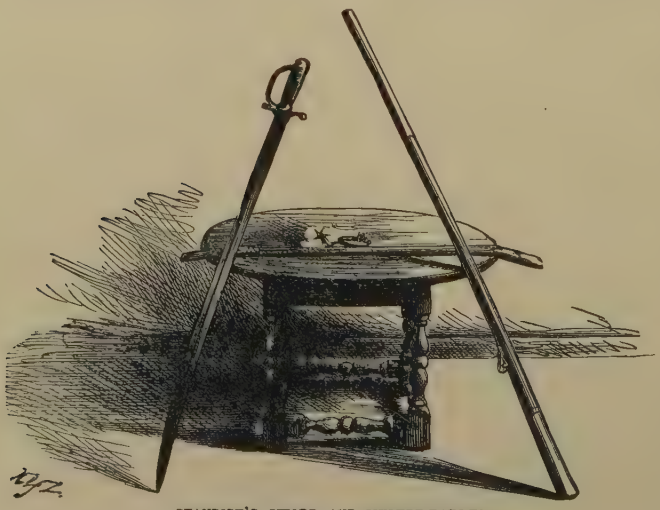
Standard Oil. See Trusts.

Standard Time. Chiefly for the convenience of the railroads in the United States a standard of time was established by mutual agreement in 1883, on principles first suggested by Charles F. Dowd, of Saratoga Springs, N. Y., by which trains are run and local time regulated. The United States, beginning at its extreme eastern limit and extending to the Pacific coast, is divided into four time-sections: eastern, central, mountain, and Pacific.

The eastern section, the time of which is that of the seventy-fifth meridian, lies between the Atlantic Ocean and an irregular line drawn from Detroit, Mich., to Charleston, S. C. The central, the time of which is that of the ninetieth meridian, includes all between the last-named line and an irregular line from Bismarck, N. D., to the mouth of the Rio Grande. The mountain, the time of which is that of the 105th meridian, includes all between the last-named line and the western boundary of Montana, Idaho, Utah, and Arizona. The Pacific, the time of which is that of the 120th meridian, includes all between the last-named line and the Pacific coast. The difference in time between adjoining sections is one hour. Thus, when it is twelve o'clock noon in New York City (eastern time, it is 11 A.M. (central time) at Chicago, and 10 A.M. at Denver (mountain time), and at San Francisco, 9 A.M. (Pacific time). The true local time of any place is slower or faster than the standard time as the place is east or west of the time meridian; thus, the true local time at Boston, Mass., is sixteen minutes faster than eastern standard time, while at Buffalo, N. Y., it is sixteen minutes slower, the seventy-fifth *time* meridian being half-way between Boston and Buffalo. Local time and standard time agree at Denver, Col., as Denver is on the 105th meridian, that of the mountain section.

Standards, a flag or ensign round which men rally or unite for a common purpose; also an emblem of nationality. The practice of an army using standards dates from the earliest times. The emblem of the cross on standards and shields is due to the asserted miraculous appearance of a cross to Constantine, previous to his battle with Maxentius; Eusebius says that he received this statement from the Emperor himself, 312. The standard was named *labarum*. For the celebrated French standard, *Auriflamme*. The British imperial standard was first hoisted on the Tower of London, and on Bedford tower, Dublin, and displayed by the foot guards, on the union of the kingdoms, Jan. 1, 1801. See FLAG.

Standards, NATIONAL BUREAU OF, a bureau organized under an act of Congress in 1901, and consisting of Dr. H. S. Pritchett, president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Dr. Ira Remsen, of Johns Hopkins University; Elihu Thomson, of Boston; Edwin L. Nichols, of Cornell University, and Albert L. Colby, of Pennsylvania. Under the law the bureau is to make all comparisons, calibrations, tests, or investigations for the government or for the State governments free of charge, but for others a fee is to be charged. Few of the States give any attention to the matter of standards, and the trouble everywhere is that every city and town has standards secured from private concerns.

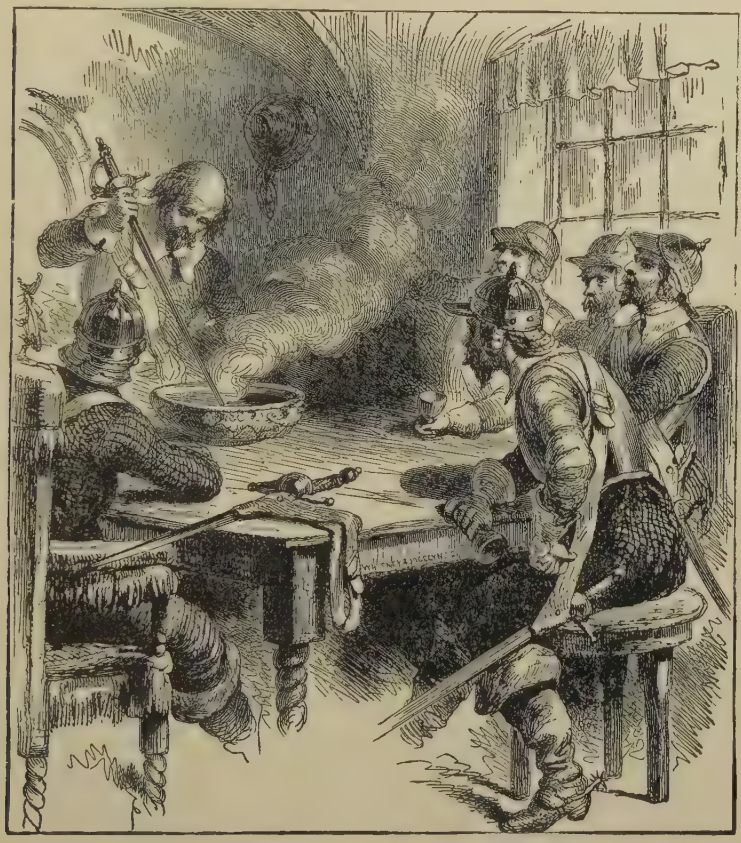


STANDISH'S SWORD AND MUSKET-BARREL.

Standing Army. See ARMY.

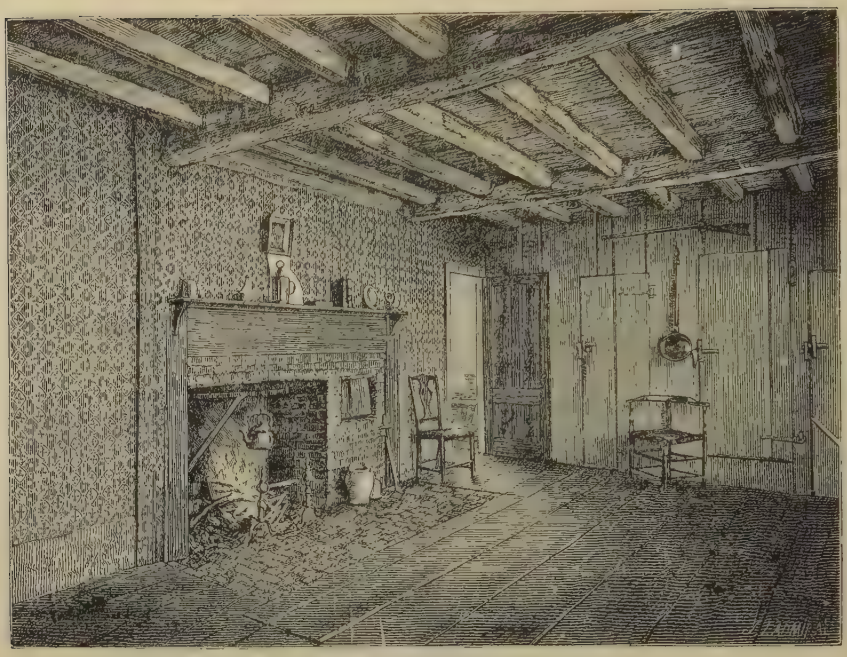
Standish, MILES, Pilgrim soldier; born in Lancashire, England, about 1584. He had served as a soldier in the Netherlands; was chosen captain of the New Plymouth settlers, though not a member of the church; small in person, of

great energy, activity, and courage; and rendered important service to the early settlers by inspiring Indians, disposed to be hostile, with awe for the English. One of the Indians, Wituamit, had already killed two white men, and was planning to massacre the settlements at Plymouth and Weymouth. Governor Bradford ordered Captain Standish to settle matters. The Indians, having grown defiant, sent a challenge to Captain Standish through a friendly Indian who lived with the Pilgrims. Standish accepted the challenge and, with the help of a score of sturdy fighters, put the Indians to rout. In all, seven Indians were killed, and their conspiracy was nipped in the bud. Standish visited England in 1625 as agent for the colony, and brought supplies the next year. The captain's wife, Rose Standish, was one of the victims of the famine and fever of 1621. In 1626 Standish settled at Duxbury, Mass., where he lived the remainder of his days administering the office of magistrate, or assistant, during the whole term. He also took part in the settlement of Bridgewater (1649). He died Oct. 3, 1656. A monument to his memory has



STANDISH AND HIS COMPANIONS.

STANDISH'S SIGNATURE.



KITCHEN OF STANDISH'S HOUSE.

been erected on Captain's Hill, Duxbury. Standish has been immortalized by Longfellow in his celebrated poem, *The Courtship of Miles Standish*, which recounts the romance of the masterful little captain in his relations with John Alden and Priscilla Mullins. Standish lives in literature and tradition as one of the most virile and picturesque figures in early American history. In Pilgrim Hall, Plymouth, is preserved Standish's sword and the barrel of his musket.

Stand-patters. See INSURGENTS.

Stanford, LELAND, philanthropist; born in Watervliet, N. Y., March 9, 1824; received a common-school education; was admitted to the bar in 1849; and practised in Port Washington, Wis., till 1852, when he removed to California and engaged in gold-mining. In 1856 he settled in San Francisco, where he established a commercial house and acquired a large fortune. He was a delegate to the Republican National Convention in 1860; governor of California in 1861; became interested in the construction of transcontinental railroads; was United States Senator in 1885–91; and founded the Leland Stanford, Jr., University, as a memorial of his only son. He died in Palo Alto, Cal., June 20, 1893. The university work laid out by him was continued by his widow, who gave the institution the largest endowment of any educational plant in the world. She died in Honolulu, Feb. 28, 1905.

In 1911 there were 154 professors and instructors; 1,617 students; 140,000 volumes in the library; grounds and buildings valued at over $7,000,000; scientific apparatus, etc., $570,000; endowment over $24,500,000; and graduates, 3,368. DAVID STARR JORDAN (*q. v.*) was president, 1891–1913; then John C. Branner.

Stanley, DAVID SLOAN, military officer; born in Cedar Valley, O., June 1, 1828; graduated at West Point in 1852, entering the dragoon service. When the Civil War began he brought off the government property from the forts in the Southwest, and performed good service in Missouri, especially at Dug Springs and Wilson's Creek. After performing signal service in Mississippi, he became

chief of cavalry in the Army of the Cumberland late in 1862, and displayed great skill in the battle of STONE RIVER (*q. v.*), and afterwards in driving Bragg into Georgia. Late in 1863 he commanded a division of the 4th Corps. He was in the Atlanta campaign, and commanded the 4th Corps from July, 1864, to the close of the war. By his arrival on the battlefield at Franklin he averted serious disaster, but was wounded and disabled. He had been made major-general of volunteers in November, 1862, and in March, 1865, was brevetted major-general, United States army. He was retired in 1892, and died in Washington, D. C., March 13, 1902.

Stanley, HENRY MORTON, explorer; born near Denbigh, Wales, in 1840. His original name was John Rawlands. For ten years he was in the poor-house of St. Asaph, where he received a good education, and left it at the age of thirteen, became teacher of a school, and finally shipped at Liverpool as a cabin-boy for New Orleans. There he found employment with a merchant named Stanley, who adopted him and gave him his name. Enlisting in the Confederate army at the

HENRY MORTON STANLEY.

beginning of the Civil War, he was made prisoner, and entered the United States navy as a volunteer. After the war he travelled in Turkey and Asia Minor, and visited Wales. At the poor-house of St. Asaph he gave a dinner to the children, and told them that what success he had attained in life he owed to the education received there. Returning to the United States, he was engaged in 1868, by the proprietor of the New York *Herald* to accompany the British expedition to Abyssinia, as correspondent. In the fall of 1869 he was commissioned by the proprietor of the *Herald* to "find Dr. Livingstone." After visiting several countries in the East, he sailed from Bombay (Oct. 12, 1870) for Zanzibar, where he arrived early in January, 1871, and set out for the interior of Africa (March 21), with 192 followers. He found Livingstone (Nov. 10), and reported to the British Association Aug. 16, 1872, and in 1873 he received the patron's medal of the Royal Geographical Society. He was commissioned by the proprietors of the New York *Herald* and the London *Telegraph* to explore the lake region of Central Africa. He set out from the eastern coast in November, 1874, with 300 men. When he reached the Victoria Nyanza Lake (Feb. 27, 1875), he had lost 194 men by death or desertion. He circumnavigated the lake, covering about 1,000 miles in the voyage. After exploring that interior region, he entered upon the Congo River and made a most perilous and exciting voyage down the stream. Subsequently he established the Congo Free State, and at the head of another African expedition effected the rescue of Emin Pasha. He returned to England in May, 1890, and in 1895 was elected to Parliament as a Liberal Unionist. His principal publications are *How I Found Livingstone; Through the Dark Continent;* and *The Congo and the Founding of Its Free State.* He died in London, May 10, 1904.

Stansbury, ARTHUR J., author; born in New York City in 1781; graduated at Columbia College in 1799, and became a licensed preacher in 1810. His publications include *Elementary Catechism on the Constitution of the United States; Report of the Trial of Judge James H. Peck on an Impeachment by the House of Representatives of the United States,* etc. He died about 1845.

Stansbury, HOWARD, surveyor; born in New York City, Feb. 8, 1806; became a civil engineer. In 1828 he was appointed to survey lines for the proposed canals

from Lakes Erie and Michigan to the Wabash River. He was made first lieutenant, Topographical Engineers, in 1838, and captain in 1840; explored the Great Salt Lake region in 1849–51, and gained a high reputation by his report on that section. He was promoted major in 1861. He was the author of *An Expedition to the Valley of the Great Salt Lake of Utah.* He died in Madison, Wis., April 17, 1863.

STANTON, EDWIN McMASTERS

Stanton, EDWIN McMASTERS, statesman; born in Steubenville, O., Dec. 19, 1814; graduated at Kenyon College, Ohio, in 1833; was admitted to the bar in 1836, and acquired an extensive practice in Steubenville. In 1848 he went to Pittsburg, Pa., where he became a leader in his profession. He removed to Washington in 1857, and was employed by Attorney-General Black to plead important cases for the United States. In December, 1860, he succeeded Black as Attorney-General, and resisted the early Confederate movements with all his might. In January, 1862, he was appointed to succeed General Cameron as Secretary of War, and managed that department with singular ability during the remainder of the Civil War. After his difficulties with President Johnson (see JOHNSON, ANDREW), he resigned (May, 1868), and was appointed judge of the United States Supreme Court, Dec. 20, 1869. He died four days afterwards, his health having been shattered by his arduous labors as war minister.

EDWIN McMASTERS STANTON.

The War Minister at Close Range.—Col. Donn Piatt contributes the following study of the national Secretary of War during the Civil War period, from the view-point of long and intimate personal association:

Stanton, when I first knew him, in 1842, and for years after, was young, ardent, and of a most joyous nature. Possessed of a keen sense of humor, he was free and eager in its enjoyment, and, strange as it may sound to those who knew him in later life, had a laugh so hearty and contagious that it became characteristic of him. His imagination was through life the larger and most potent quality of his mind, and from first to last he lived in a world so tinctured by it, that his thoughts and acts were mysteries to the commonplace, matter-of-fact minds about him. He shared this peculiarity with William H. Seward, and the two made up a part of President Lincoln's cabinet quite distinctive from the other half composed of Lincoln himself and Salmon P. Chase. The President and his Secretary of the Treasury, while dissimilar in many things, were one in the way they regarded what the world is pleased to call facts. Working from such widely separated planes, it is singular how well they worked together. It seems strange to look back and contrast the Stanton of that early day, with the hard, bronze, historic figure of a war minister, whose great brain conceived and iron hand guided the terrible conflict that ended in a rebuilding of the great republic. I cannot divest myself of the feeling that I am considering two widely dissimilar men.

An absence in Europe and a drifting apart separated us for a time, and when we met again I was called upon to recognize another man from the Stanton of my youth. It was at Washington we met, upon the streets, and I seized the old Stanton by the hand with a cry of delight.

For a second the old, well-loved gleam of pleasure lit his face, and then it faded out, and a gloomy, sad expression took its place, and the Stanton I once knew was gone forever. His manner, so cold, reserved, and formal, embarrassed me. It was not precisely hostile, it was more an indifference that annoyed. I knew that it could not be a snub.

I happened to be at Washington when Stanton was called to the cabinet of President Lincoln. It was a strange event. Stanton was not only a Democrat of so fierce a sort that his democracy seemed his religion, but he felt and had openly expressed his contempt for Abraham Lincoln.

I do not wonder at President Lincoln selecting Stanton to control, at the time, the most important arm of the government, but I was amazed at Stanton's acceptance.

He was wont to pass some time, almost daily, at our room in the hotel where, in the society of my dear wife, he seemed to relax from the sombre reserve of busy life. It was a relaxation quite removed from the kindly, impulsive nature of early youth. There was the same sense of humor, but it was cynical, and stung as well as it amused. Some days before he entered upon his new duties I asked him in the privacy of our room if the strange report was true.

"Yes," he responded, "I am going to be Secretary of War to old Abe."

"What will you do?" I asked, meaning as to how he could reconcile his contempt of the President, and their widely dissimiliar belief, with his service under him. His reply ignored my meaning.

"Do?" he said; "I intend to accomplish three things. I will make Abe Lincoln President of the United States. I will force this man McClellan to fight or throw up; and last, but not least, I will pick Lorenzo Thomas up with a pair of tongs and drop him from the nearest window."

Strange as it is, this last and apparently easiest task, was the one he did not accomplish. Lorenzo defied him, and, as Sumner wrote Stanton, "stuck" to the last.

To appreciate the change wrought in the appointment of Mr. Stanton, one has to understand the condition of the government at the time the Hon. Simon Cameron was retired. The war, that so unexpectedly broke upon us—so unexpectedly that the government itself could not believe in its existence until the roar of Confederate artillery rang in its ears, found a people at the North not only unprepared, but in profound ignorance of all that was necessary to carry on an armed conflict.

Two facts alone saved us: one was the strange adaptability of our people to any emergency, and the second, that our enemy was in as bad a condition as ourselves.

The first roar of "rebel" artillery, as it was then called, aroused our people to such extent that the roll of the drum heard all over the land was the throb of a mighty impulse set to harsh music, and we developed in an instant all the good and bad of a great people. While the patriotic hurried in thousands to the front to fight, the dishonest, in almost like numbers, hastened to the rear to plunder. Looking over the field, from the War Department under Cameron, at Washington, it was difficult to determine which had control, and the direst confusion reigned through both.

The Hon. Simon Cameron, Secretary of War, proved incapable of controlling the one or organizing the other. In the field we had confusion utterly confounded, followed by shameful disasters, while, on all sides, organized dishonesty plundered at will. Congress saw from the portals of the Capitol the insolent wave of the Confederate flag, while along the heavy walls echoed the roar of as insolent an artillery. In our despair we had called McClellan from a little victory, won by Rosecrans in West Virginia, and labelling him "the young Napoleon," gave him supreme command. Popular acclamation made this youth, who had all the confidence of genius without its capacity or inspiration, President, in fact. Abraham Lincoln, ignorant of all that pertained to the art of war, magnified its importance and difficulties, as one under such circumstances will, and with the modesty so marked in him deferred patiently to those he believed better informed.

When Mr. Stanton told us that he would make Abraham Lincoln President, he did not mean that he would restore the Union, but that he would relegate the young Napoleon to his subordinate position, that of

being commander. The indifference, not to say the arrogance, of our untried Napoleon is hard to realize now. With princes and the sons of millionaires upon his staff, he assumed the airs of a dictator, and it was no uncommon circumstance to see both President and Secretary of War waiting in his antechamber, for leisure from mighty reviews and petty detail, for an interview with him who had no campaigns to communicate, or, if he had, declined taking the government in his confidence.

Congress in its despair set up this untried dignity in gorgeous uniform, and saw, for nearly a year, a huge army coiled like a sluggish anaconda about the capital, and learned to its dismay that the only orders from headquarters were to "avoid bringing on a conflict," and continued congratulations that "all was quiet upon the Potomac." Exasperated beyond endurance, Congress demanded the withdrawal of Simon Cameron as a preliminary step to unhorsing our parade captain.

President Lincoln, nothing loath, complied with this, and I have reason to believe hesitated, for some days, between the appointment of the Hon. Joseph Holt and Edwin M. Stanton. Strange to say the doubt was solved by the choice of General McClellan. He preferred the man who, in the end, made life a burden to the young Napoleon, and his retirement a necessity.

"Now, gentlemen," said Secretary Stanton to the officers assembled at his first reception, "we will, if you please, have some fighting. It is my business to furnish the means, it is yours to use them. I leave the fighting to you, but the fighting we must have."

The change wrought by him, in his new capacity, was magical. Disorder and dishonesty disappeared together. The one hid itself in holes, to be hunted out and punished, with a certainty that struck terror into the souls of the thieves, while the other was driven out never to appear again. Huge armies began to move, the great arteries of supply to throb with men and material. The anaconda uncoiled its folds, and stretching out drove the Confederate flag and artillery from Munson's Hill. The roar of deadly conflict grew remote, and Richmond, in lieu of Washington, was threatened with capture. The stillness about the War Department grew ominous. Instead of quarrelling contractors and clattering, epauletted officials, the telegraph ticked out its information, and deadly orders and reports of great battles, and, I am pained to write, shameful disasters which startled the land. The people felt the master hand, and waited in breathless anxiety for the returns, in victory or defeat. Men about the capital saw through the dead hours of the night the lights gleam from the windows where the tireless Secretary held, without rest, the trembling fate of the great republic in firm hands under an iron will.

Few of us only knew of the strain put upon one man in this hour of deadly trial. Edwin M. Stanton had been, of late years, subject to a termination of blood to the brain, and had been warned by his capable physician that, unless he found entire quiet in abstinence from all excitement, he might die at any moment. Regardless of these warnings, he threw himself into the great work, fully aware of the danger before him. Nevertheless, Death sat at his board, slept in his bed, and through the long watches of those fearful nights the grim phantom glared upon him, ready at any moment to strike. It was, after all, only a furlough he received from the enemy. God seemed to ordain that he should be spared until his mighty task was ended, and then the pale messenger accompanied him home, tenderly to inscribe upon his monument—"To this man, more than to any other man save one, the great republic owes its life."

This disorder, added to his mental strain, overwhelmed the great Secretary's nervous system, and not only deepened the gloomy spells to which he was addicted, but made him so irritable and impatient that official business with subordinates got to be insult. He was approached by all about him in fear and trembling. And the same ugliness seemed to be contagious. The officer coming from his presence, wounded to the quick, gave to others under him the same treatment.

The late Senator Wilson, of Massachusetts, and the late Jeremiah S. Black,

of Pennsylvania, had a fierce controversy over Stanton's conduct while a member of President Buchanan's cabinet. The one maintained that, if the other was correct in what he asserted, Stanton was a monster of duplicity and ingratitude.

Both were wrong, and, to a certain extent, both were right. Senator Wilson was a man all sentiment and of little information, while Judge Black squared all creation on certain principles, that were as narrow in their bigotry as Wilson in his beliefs. Both failed to take into account the impulsiveness of the Secretary, whose feelings often ran away with his better judgment. He was bound, by his position in Buchanan's cabinet, to sustain his chief in his charming proposition which asserted that, while a State could not secede from the Union, the government could not restrain such secession by force. Stanton saw the absurdity of an attempt to hold the turbulent Union by the rotten ground-rail of a Virginia abstraction, but he looked in wrath that ended in sickening disgust at the noisy abolitionists, who, through their hatred of the master, would scuttle and sink the ship of state. Between these conflicting feelings he gave open expression to his impatience, that Wilson seized on as information, and, after Stanton's death, claimed as evidences of sympathy.

I cannot believe that a man of Stanton's force of character and fixed opinions was suddenly converted from a pro-slavery Democrat to an abolitionist. He was not the man to be stricken down, by one blow, in his sin, and rise in his righteousness. It is my opinion that he took the place tendered him by President Lincoln precisely as he would have accepted a retainer from a client in an important case. He saw from the beginning that the issue was to be fought out to the bitter end. He found no difficulty in making the case his own. It was his habit; and, in this instance, it came easy; for, while he loathed the anti-slavery organization, he loved the Union with the strongest pulsation of a heart that had in it truer guidance than the loftiest leader of the abolitionists had in the light of his brain.

In the same way, General McClellan charged Edwin M. Stanton with treachery to the man who claims to have made the Secretary. This is natural and of easy solution. When the "young Napoleon" graciously consented to the selection of Stanton as Secretary of War, he did so under the impression that he was to have the same sort of humble supporter Simon Cameron had been. He awakened to the fact that it was one thing to have a sympathizing friend in a brother Democrat, giving him what lawyers call street opinion on supposable cases, and quite another to have the same man made master, with the responsibility of an empire thrown upon his shoulders.

Stanton assumed the powers of Secretary with the solemn resolve to execute its duties to the best of his ability, without fear, affection, or favor. He failed in many instances, as I shall show, but not in respect to McClellan. His first important move grew out of the very intimacy that is made the foundation of this charge. Stanton saw, as did Lincoln, Seward, and Chase, that only half the enemy was under arms at their front; that the other half, far more deadly, was coiled in silence at their rear.

Lincoln was a minority President. The unknown rail-splitter of Illinois had no hold on the affections of the people he presided over. He told us once that he felt like a surveyor in the wild woods of the West, who, while looking for a corner, kept an eye over his shoulder for an Indian. The late Whigs and immediate free-soilers voting against the extension of slavery, more from the necessity of having some sort of a platform on which to rally than opposition to slavery, accepted without enthusiasm the President a minority had elected; while the Democrats at the North felt, as deeply as Stanton himself, nothing but hatred and contempt for the cause.

The firing on our flag at Sumter, that so aroused the war spirit at the North, had disconcerted and discouraged the Democratic sentiment at the same North, but did not kill it. It was observed, and it must be remembered, that, as the thousands wheeled into line and marched to the front, it was under cries of "Save the Union," and not to free the negro. They went out to punish and put down the miscreants who had dragged in the dust the flag of our fathers, and they gave the

abolitionists the cold shoulder for being, as they believed, the real cause of all this turmoil. How long this war spirit would last was the question. Lincoln believed it would continue with his success in the field. He and his cabinet suddenly awakened to quite another fact, and that was that, while a victory seemed to arouse the rebel spirit at the North, and a demand was heard to cease fighting and negotiate with the wrong-doers for peace, a shameful defeat, that sent mourning through the households of the patriotic, seemed to arouse a spirit that not only silenced open discontent, but sent thousands on thousands of brave fellows to the field to retrieve the disaster.

It was impossible to tell how long this state of affairs would continue. Our great statesmen in control at Washington well knew that this rebellious discontent grew on delay. Hence Stanton's demand, "We will have some fighting, gentlemen."

He awakened to another startling fact, and that was that this spirit of distrust in the government had crept into the army. West Point, that teaches everything but patriotism and the art of war, had been prolific of pro-slavery Democrats. Taught blind obedience to the powers that be as the essence of soldiership, and having known no other power than a pro-slavery government, the West-Pointers divided at the sound of the first gun, and while one half, acknowledging allegiance only to their States, went South, the other half, recognizing their obligations to the national government, remained faithful, and yet, with few exceptions, secretly despising the rule of abolitionists. This feeling arose from the additional fact that West Point is more of a social feature than a military school, and as reformers are not fashionable, seldom, if ever, even respectable, the cadet had a horror of the howling abolitionist.

These are unpleasant things to say now, but I am giving Stanton's views at the time, and the views shared by his eminent associates. We look back and wonder at the cold neglect awarded George H. Thomas, the most brilliant and most successful soldier of the war, but Lincoln had been taught to distrust a West Point Democrat and that distrust was deepened by Thomas's Virginia birth.

"This man has no heart in the cause," said Stanton of McClellan, "he is fighting for a boundary if he fights at all; our great difficulty is to make him fight at all."

I have not the space here to follow the young Napoleon through his fearful disasters on the James. Stanton maintained to the last hour of his life that these defeats came as much from disloyalty as incapacity. I differ from him. The same lack of capacity that brought defeat saved us from any well-defined project of treachery. The man who shrunk from a move on Richmond after Malvern Hill, had not in him the stuff to make a Catiline.

I have nothing to do with the war, save so far as the facts go to disprove the charges now made against the dead Secretary. Stanton told me after he left the War Department to die, that "all the time the huge army lay coiled about Washington, a distrust of the government at Washington, as a nest of vicious abolitionists, was insidiously cultivated among the men; and, after the terrible defeats before Richmond, when distress from sickness and disaster depressed the army, the men were taught to believe that the government had abandoned them to their cruel fate. This was so marked," continued the Secretary, speaking in gasps, "that when Lincoln visited the camps a fear was had at headquarters that he would be insulted, and orders were issued to cheer the President when he appeared. Instead of holding to all that we had gained through such terrible loss of blood and money, the entire army had to be returned to the fortifications of Washington, before Lincoln dared put another general in command. McClellan's restoration was a mistake, but it originated in the same fact. Lincoln said: 'This man may not be the best to continue as our general, but he has the confidence of the men and is the only one able to reorganize our forces after these defeats. We must bear with him a while longer.'"

I have not space to treat of this McClellan affair further than is necessary to illustrate the character of Secretary Stanton. If the Democratic general had his plan of a campaign, he was as remarkable for keeping it to himself as he was cau-

tious in putting it in operation. Nothing but repeated orders could force him to move, and the only interference he could complain of was in the directing that Washington should not be uncovered.

I have referred to the disloyal feeling that fairly honeycombed with treason the Northern States. There was another third of the conflict that concerned the power at Washington that the able Seward, under Lincoln, managed with eminent ability, and that was the danger from foreign interference. Had the war powers of Europe combined, as they were disposed to do, in a recognition of the Confederacy, I would now be writing this under the Northern Republic of America. This fear was never made prominent, for it was not policy to have it known, but it hung on the horizon like a heavy cloud, with muttering thunder, that Lincoln and his cabinet were forced to see and hear.

Our capital was in the country of the enemy. Sandwiched between Virginia and Maryland, with treason simmering in the one and at a boil in the other, it was in continual peril. To lose that capital at any time, was to fetch on from Europe not only recognition but armed interference. The clear, capable brain of Seward saw this, and hence the order from the Secretary of War that kept an army well in hand, not so much to repel the attacks of an organized force, as to keep in subjection a people whose stones and clubs would have been as much to the purpose as Lee's armed brigades of disciplined men.

I am pained to write, striving to do so with truth, that against other charges of injustice on the part of the great Secretary I can make no defence. With all his eminent ability, with all his earnest, honest desire to do his duty for the government he served, he was, without exception, more subject to personal likes and dislikes, more vindictive in his gratification of the last, than any man ever called to public station. Nothing but his wonderful ability and great force of character saved him and his cause from utter wreck in this direction. Not only so, but it seemed to me that both Stanton and Seward were drunk with the lust of power. They fairly rioted in its enjoyment. While Lincoln and Chase were as pure and simple in this as children, with no such morbid desire to gratify, with no personal friends to favor, and no enemies to punish, Stanton and Seward not only revelled in despotic authority, but Stanton used the fearful power of the government to crush those he hated, as he sought through the same means to elevate those he loved.

Of the many instances memory brings to mind, the most cruel, one may indeed write infamous, was that awarded General Rosecrans. William S. Rosecrans, a brave, patriotic soldier, with brilliant qualities as a commander, and many striking defects, had wounded Stanton in a way never to be forgotten or forgiven.

"Old Rosy," as his soldiers affectionately called him, and, in so doing, gave the man in two words, did not know one man from another. In regard to character he was color blind, and, of course, did not recognize a great man when he saw him—certainly not, unless under epaulettes manufactured at West Point. He regarded Stanton as a clerk to the President, and the President as an impertinent interference in the management of the great war, which interference he regretted that the Constitution prevented removing.

I have said he had brilliant qualities as a general in command. He could plan a campaign and fight a battle equal to any officer in the United States. But in the selection of his subordinates he could not distinguish George H. Thomas from Alexander McDowell McCook, and in receiving instructions or advice from his superiors he could not see that they were apt to be wiser than he, from their having escaped what he was pleased to call a military education. In the personal intercourse first had between the Secretary and the soldier occurred a mutual misunderstanding of each other that continued to the end. Nature has given to all its creatures an instinctive knowledge of their enemies. This enmity really had its origin in ignorance, but it is doubtful whether any amount of information would have corrected the difference. Rosecrans saw before him, as I have said, a mere clerk, and instead of sweeping the floor with his new plumes, with bated breath and humble attention, as other generals were wont to do, he not only held his perpendicular,

with the martial bearing becoming the sashed and gold-embroidered soldier, but with a soldier's indifference to the views of a clerk and civilian on matters of war. Of course, the Secretary resented such extraordinary conduct and could see no good in the shallow brigadier.

A vacancy of a major-generalship in the regular service occurring some time after Stanton assumed the duties of Secretary, he issued a circular to all the generals open to such promotion, offering the position to the one achieving the first victory.

The Secretary did not entertain the highest opinion of his epauletted subordinates, and did not know that he was wounding men who, whatever may be said of their military capacity or patriotism, had, through training and association, a nice sense of honor. All of these felt what Rosecrans alone had boldness enough to resent. Seizing his pen, always as fatal to himself as his sword to the enemy, he worded a rough rebuke that went home to the heart of the author of the circular. After that this brave man and efficient officer had, first, neglect, and then cruel punishment and abuse from the Secretary.

When the Army of the Cumberland required a new commander after the failure of General Buell, Chase urged Rosecrans, and Lincoln called him to the place, in spite of Stanton's opposition. The Secretary of War preferred Thomas, not only because he had learned to admire and believe in that greatest of all our generals, but for that he had sworn "Rosy" should never again be officer of his. I speak of what I know, for I had excited Stanton's wrath by urging the selection of Rosecrans, and I remember well the day when he entered the War Department, flushed with anger, for I happened there, and said abruptly to me, "Well, you have your choice of idiots; now look out for frightful disasters."

No army in the field called for the same patient consideration and care as that of the Cumberland. The success of our campaigning turned on a question of transportation. The enemy occupying the inner line of a circle, could, with comparative ease, concentrate on any point selected, while to the geographical difficulties before us were added the dishonesty of our agents furnishing supplies and the wanton improvidence of our men, who, feeling the huge government at their back, were, with all their courage and endurance, as improvident as children. We wasted in a day what would have sustained a European army for a month.

We had three armies in the field, and if my reader will turn to the map, he will see that, while one operated on the James, the other had the Mississippi. The third, Rosecrans's force, struck through the interior from Louisville, and for 600 miles over the enemy's territory had to depend on a single line of railroad. Rosecrans had more trouble to keep open this line, and, after every victory and successful turn, to accumulate supplies, than he had to whip the enemy. The two armies, right and left of him, moved on with ease, and while their generals were congratulated on their manœuvres, Rosecrans was censured for delay, although at every halt he won a victory and rebuilt his railroad His objective point was Chattanooga, the Gibraltar of the South. Nature built the impregnable fortifications of the place, while almost impassable mountains stretched their palisades east and west for 200 miles.

Rosecrans, after delays Stanton would not appreciate, and the people grew impatient over, penetrated these mountains, turned Bragg's flank, and forcing the Confederate to a fight on equal terms, repulsed him and fell back on Chattanooga. He had accomplished his objective point. He had won the apparently impregnable fort, from which our armies operated from that out, and his reward was, under a cloud of lies, to be dismissed in the most insulting and brutal manner. This was so evident, that Thomas, who had won our victory at Chickamauga from the very jaws of defeat, repudiated the call made on him to succeed Rosecrans, and only accepted, when forced, after he had put on record his high appreciation of his late commander.

Stanton had his defects, but he had no weaknesses. His very sins had a fierce strength in them, that helped on, instead of retarding his work. He could crush a personal enemy under the iron heel of his military power, but the men he fa-

vored, such as Hooker, Pope, and Thomas, were eminently fitted for the tasks assigned them.

Stanton's was the master mind of the war. To his indomitable will and iron nature we owe all that we accomplished in that direction. When he saw, after the battle of Gettysburg, that the Confederacy was sinking from sheer exhaustion, he crowded on men to stamp it out. He knew that Lee was leaving a highway of human bones to mark Grant's road from the Rapidan to Richmond; that we were having more killed than the Confederate generals had in command; he knew that Sherman's march on Atlanta was a succession of bloody defeats, and he said, "He can give five men to their one, and win; these victories to the rebels are disasters they cannot afford." He knew that 40,000 of our poor fellows were dying of exposure and starvation in Confederate prisons, yet when Grant wrote him that to liberate that number of healthy rebels would be the ruin of Sherman, the exchange was stopped. There was no sea of blood, no waste of treasure, to stand in the way of a restored Union and the empire of a continent.

He finished his great work, resigned his commission of office and life at the same instant, for he staggered from his department on the arm of Death. The terrible strain that a fierce nature had actually lived on, gave way, and the relaxation meant dissolution. The silver cord did not snap; it unravelled and fell to pieces. He died in the golden glow of his greatness, and was spared that most pitiable of all spectacles, the hero who survives himself. It was a cold, stormy night, when this stormy nature sank to its last repose, and the Carnot "who organized victory" surrendered quietly to the victor of all.

As the smoke of battles and the mist of conflicting passions pass away, five grand, stern figures loom up before us, standing strange and solemn as fates raised by destiny to save our government in its hour of peril. The monument to Lincoln has not yet been built. When it is, the column that holds aloft the form of our greatest man of that trying period, should have supporting the base, four bronze figures of Chase, Seward, Stanton, and Thomas. And so will history, in the hearts of the people, group those to whom we owe our existence as a nation.

Stanton, Elizabeth Cady, reformer; born in Johnstown, N. Y., Nov. 12, 1815; received an academic education. In July, 1848, she called the first woman's rights convention, which met in Seneca Falls, N. Y., and succeeded, after much opposition, in having the first demand for woman suffrage adopted. She was president of the Woman's Loyal League in 1861, and held the same office in the Woman's Suffrage Association in 1865–93. She annually addressed Congress for over twenty-five years in advocacy of a sixteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States establishing woman suffrage. She was author of *The History of Woman Suffrage* (with Susan B. Anthony and Matilda Joslyn Gage); *Eighty Years and More; The Woman's Bible;* etc. She died in New York, Oct. 26, 1902. See Divorce Laws, Uniform.

Stanton, Henry Brewster, journalist; born in Griswold, Conn., June 29, 1805; settled in Rochester, N. Y., in 1826, and became a writer for *The Monroe Telegraph;* was a strong abolitionist. In 1834, while speaking at the anniversary celebration of the American Anti-slavery Society in New York, he encountered the first of numerous mobs that he met in his tour through the country. He married Elizabeth Cady in 1840, and with her travelled in England and France, where they worked for the relief of the slaves. Returning to the United States, he was admitted to the bar, and practised in Boston. In 1847 he settled in Seneca Falls, N. Y., which he represented in the State Senate. In 1868–87 he was an editor on the New York *Sun.* He was the author of *Sketches of Reforms and Reformers in Great Britain and Ireland;* and *Random Recollections.* He died in New York City, Jan. 4, 1887.

Stanwix, Fort, a defensive work on the site of Rome, N. Y.; named in honor of Gen. John Stanwix. In 1758, when returning with a detachment of provincial troops from Oswego, General Stanwix constructed the fort for the security of the Indians in the neighborhood who adhered to the English. After its relief from capture in August, 1777, through the exer-

tions of General Schuyler, it was named Fort Schuyler.

On Nov. 5, 1768, a treaty was held at Fort Stanwix, at which the Six Nations, in consideration of the payment of a little over $50,000, ceded to the crown all their country south of the Ohio as far as the Cherokee or Tennessee River. So much of this region as lay south of the Great Kanawha was claimed by the Cherokees as their hunting-ground.

Stanwix, JOHN, military officer; born in England, about 1690; came to America, in 1756, as commandant of the first battalion of the 60th, or Royal Americans. He was commander of the Southern District, with his headquarters at Carlisle, Pa., in 1757. In December he was promoted to brigadier-general. On being relieved by Forbes, he proceeded to Albany, and was directed to build a fort at the "Oneida carrying-place," on the Mohawk. He returned to Pennsylvania, a major-general, in 1759, strengthened Fort Pitt, and secured the good-will of the Indians. In May, 1760, he resigned his commission to Monckton, and, on his return to England, was appointed lieutenant-governor of the Isle of Wight. He also became a member of Parliament. He had served with reputation in the wars of Queen Anne before coming to America, having entered the army in 1706. General Stanwix was lost at sea while crossing from Dublin to Holyhead in 1765.

Stanwood, EDWARD, journalist; born in Augusta, Me., Sept. 16, 1841; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1861; connected with the Boston *Daily Advertiser* and *Youth's Companion;* special agent of the Census Bureau in 1890, 1900, and 1905. He is the author of *History of Presidential Elections; History of the Presidency; American Tariff Controversies; James Gillespie Blaine,* etc.

Staples, WALLER REDD, jurist; born in Patrick Court-house, Va., Feb. 24, 1826; graduated at William and Mary College in 1846; admitted to the bar in 1848; a member of the commission to the Provisional Congress which convened in Montgomery, Ala., in 1861; member of the Confederate Congress in 1861–64; judge of the Supreme Court of Virginia in 1870–82; and elector on the Democratic Presidential ticket in 1884. Later he became counsel for the Richmond and Danville Railroad. He died in 1897.

Star of the West, a steam merchantman, sent to relieve Major Anderson in Fort Sumter. It having been resolved, on the advice of Secretary Holt and General Scott, to send troops to reinforce the garrison at Fort Sumter, orders were given for the United States steam-frigate *Brooklyn*—the only war-ship available then—to be in readiness to sail from Norfolk at a moment's notice. This order Jacob Thompson, Secretary of the Interior, revealed to the early Confederate leaders. Virginians were ready to seize the *Brooklyn;* the lights of the shore-beacons in Charleston Harbor were extinguished, and the buoys that marked the channel were removed. Informed of the betrayal of his order, President Buchanan countermanded it, when Thompson threatened to resign in consequence of such an order. The President promised him that none like it should be given "without the question being first considered and decided in the cabinet." It was soon evident that there were members of the cabinet who could not be trusted. Dangers were thickening; and the President, listening to the counsels of Holt and Scott, resolved to send supplies and men to Sumter, by stealth. The stanch merchant steam-vessel *Star of the West* was chartered by the government for the purpose and quickly laden with supplies. She was cleared for Savannah and New Orleans, so as to mislead spies, and left New York at sunset, Jan. 5, 1861. Far down the bay she received, under cover of thick darkness, four officers and 250 artillerists and marines, with their arms and ammunition, and proceeded to sea, under her commander, Capt. John McGowan.

On the morning of Jan. 9 she reached Charleston Bar, before daylight. Finding all the shore-lights put out, she extinguished her own. Just at dawn a scouting steamboat discovered her, burned colored lights as signals, and ran for the inner harbor. The *Star of the West* had all her soldiers concealed below and was in the guise of a merchant vessel. The deception was fruitless; her errand was already known. Alexander Jones, a telegraphic correspondent of the Southern newspapers, had informed the *Charleston*

Mercury of the sailing of the vessel from New York, and Secretary Thompson, in possession of the secret, imparted it to the authorities at Charleston. "As I was writing my resignation," he afterwards wrote, "I sent a despatch to Judge Long-

THE STAR OF THE WEST.

street that the *Star of the West* was coming with reinforcements." He also gave a messenger another despatch to be sent, in which he said, as if by authority, "Blow the *Star of the West* out of the water." The messenger patriotically withheld the despatch.

When the vessel was within 2 miles of Fort Sumter, unsuspicious of danger, a shot came ricochetting across her bow from a masked battery on Morris Island, three-fourths of a mile distant. The national flag was flying over the *Star of the West*, and her captain immediately displayed a large American ensign at the fore. As she passed on, a continuous fire was kept up from Morris Island, and an occasional shot from Fort Moultrie was hurled at her. Two steam-tugs and an armed schooner put out from Fort Moultrie to intercept her. Captain McGowan, finding himself hemmed in, powerless, and in imminent danger of capture, turned his vessel seaward, after seventeen shots had been fired by the insurgents, and returned to New York, Jan. 12. This firing on the flag of the United States was the first overt act of war that marked the inauguration of the great Civil War of 1861–65. Had Major Anderson, in Sumter, then known that loyal men were in power in his government, he would have opened the great guns of the fortress, and the *Star of the West* and her precious freight would not have been driven to sea.

There was great exultation in South Carolina because of this act of war. The legislature resolved that they "learned with pride and pleasure of the successful resistance this day by the troops of this State, acting under orders of the governor, to an attempt to reinforce Fort Sumter." The *Charleston Mercury*, Jan. 10, said, exultingly: "Yesterday, the 9th of January, will be remembered in history. Powder has been burned over a decree of our State, timber has been crashed, perhaps blood spilled. The expulsion of the *Star of the West* from Charleston Harbor, yesterday morning, was the opening of the ball of revolution. We are proud that our harbor has been so honored." . . . South Carolina "has not hesitated to strike the first blow, full in the face of her insulter. Let the United States government bear or return, at its good-will, the blow still tingling about its ears—the fruit of its own bandit temerity. We would not exchange or recall that blow for millions. It has wiped out half a century of scorn and outrage. . . . If that red seal of blood be still lacking to the parchment of our liberties—and blood they want—blood they shall have, and blood enough to stamp it all in red. For, by the God of our fathers, the soil of South Carolina *shall be free!*"

Star-routes, routes on which contracts for carrying the United States mail are made upon bids which do not specify the mode of conveyance, but simply offer to carry the mails regularly, safely, and expeditiously. Such bids are regarded by the Post-office Department as inferior to those which specify railroad, steamboat, or four-horse-coach conveyance; but as superior to those which specify only horseback carriers. In 1881 second assistant

Postmaster-General Thomas J. Brady, ex-Senator Stephen W. Dorsey, of Arkansas, and others, were accused of conspiracy to defraud the United States government in the management of these routes. They were brought to trial in 1882; first jury not agreeing; second trial closed June 11, 1883. Verdict, not guilty.

Stars and Bars. See CONFEDERATE STATES (*Flag*).

Stars and Stripes. See ROSS, ELIZABETH.

Star-spangled Banner. See KEY, F. S.

Stark, JOHN, military officer; born in Londonderry, N. H., Aug. 28, 1728; removed to Derryfield (now Manchester) in 1736. In 1752, while on a hunting excursion, he was made a prisoner by the St. Francis Indians, and was ransomed in a few weeks for $103. He became popular with the Indians, and was adopted into their tribe. In 1755 he was made lieutenant of Rogers's Rangers, and performed good service during the French and Indian War. A member of the committee of safety at the commencement of the Revolution, he was alive to the importance of every political event. On the news of the fight at Lexington, he hastened to Cambridge and was immediately chosen colonel of the New Hampshire troops. He was efficient in the battle on Bunker (Breed's) Hill. Near the close of 1776, after doing effective service in the Northern Department, he joined Washington on the Delaware. He commanded the vanguard in the battle at Trenton, and was active in that at Princeton. In the spring of 1777, displeased because he had been overlooked in promotions, he resigned his commission in the army and was placed in command of New Hampshire militia, raised there to oppose the British advance from Canada. Acting upon the authority of his State and his own judgment, he refused to obey the orders of General Lincoln to march to the west of the Hudson. He soon afterwards gained the battle at Hoosick, near Bennington (Aug. 16, 1777), for which Congress, overlooking his insubordination, thanked him. He joined Gates at Bemis's Heights, but the term of his militia having expired, he went home, raised a new force, and cut off Burgoyne's retreat from Saratoga. Stark was placed in command of the Northern Department in 1778, and in 1779–80 served in Rhode Island and New Jersey. He was also at West Point, and was one of the court that condemned Major André. He was again in command of the Northern Department in 1781, with his headquarters at Saratoga. After the war he lived in retirement. He was the last surviving general of the army, excepting Sumter, who died in 1832. He died in Manchester, N. H., May 8, 1822.

JOHN STARK.

State, DEPARTMENT OF, one of the executive departments of the United States government, under the immediate direction of an official popularly known as the Secretary of State. The functions of the department are indicated in the following duties of its chief:

The Secretary of State is charged, under the direction of the President, with the duties appertaining to correspondence with the public ministers and the consuls of the United States, and with the representatives of foreign powers accredited to the United States, and to negotiations of whatever character relating to the foreign affairs of the United States. He is also the medium of correspondence between the President and the chief executives of the several States of the United States; he has the custody of the great seal of the United States, and countersigns and affixes such seal to all executive proclamations, to various commissions, and to warrants for the extradition of fugitives from justice. He is regarded as the first in rank among the members of the cabinet. He is also the custodian of the treaties

made with foreign states, and of the laws of the United States. He grants and issues passports, and exequaturs to foreign consuls in the United States are issued through his office. He publishes the laws and resolutions of Congress, amendments to the Constitution, and proclamations declaring the admission of new States into the Union. He is also charged with the annual reports to Congress relating to diplomatic and consular information.

The detailed work of the department is performed by bureaus—*viz.*, diplomatic, consular, indexes and archives, accounts, rolls and library, passports, and appointments. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

State Flowers and Nicknames. Only nicknames that are well known and "State flowers" officially adopted or commonly accepted are given in the following list:

State.	Nickname.	Flower.
Alabama	Cotton State	Goldenrod
Arizona		Sequoia cactus
Arkansas	Bear State	Apple blossom
California	Golden State	Poppy
Colorado	Centennial State	Columbine
Connecticut	Nutmeg State	
Delaware	Blue Hen State	Peach blossom
Florida	Peninsula State	
Georgia	Cracker State	Cherokee rose
Idaho		Syringa
Illinois	Sucker State	Violet
Indiana	Hoosier State	
Iowa	Hawkeye State	Wild rose
Kansas	Sunflower State	Sunflower
Kentucky	Blue Grass State	
Louisiana	Pelican State	Magnolia
Maine	Pine Tree State	Pine cone
Maryland	Old Line State	
Massachusetts	Bay State	
Michigan	Wolverine State	Apple blossom
Minnesota	Gopher State	Moccasin
Mississippi	Bayou State	Magnolia
Missouri		Goldenrod
Montana	Stub Toe State	Bitter-root
Nebraska		Goldenrod
Nevada	Silver State	
New Hampshire	Granite State	
New Jersey	Jersey Blue State	Sugar maple
New York	Empire State	Rose
North Carolina	Old North State	
North Dakota	Flickertail State	Goldenrod
Ohio	Buckeye State	
Oklahoma		Mistletoe
Oregon	Beaver State	Oregon grape
Pennsylvania	Keystone State	
Rhode Island	Little Rhody	Violet
South Carolina	Palmetto State	
South Dakota	Swinge Cat State	
Tennessee	Big Bend State	
Texas	Lone Star State	Bluebonnet
Utah		Sego lily
Vermont	Green Mountain State	Red clover
Virginia	The Old Dominion	
Washington	Chinook State	Rhododendron
West Virginia	The Panhandle	
Wisconsin	Badger State	
Wyoming		Gentian

State Government. On May 10, 1776, the Congress resolved "that it be recommended to the respective assemblies and conventions of the United Colonies, where no government sufficient to the exigencies of their affairs hath been hitherto established, to adopt such government as shall, in the opinion of the representatives of the people, best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents in particular and America in general." This resolution was offered by John Adams, and he, Edward Rutledge, and Richard H. Lee were appointed a committee to draft a preamble to it. It was reported and adopted on the 15th. In that preamble it was asserted that "all oaths for the support of government under the crown of Great Britain were irreconcilable with reason and good conscience; and that the exercise of every kind of authority under that crown ought to be totally suppressed, and all the powers of government exerted, under authority from the people of the colonies, for the maintenance of internal peace and the defence of their lives, liberties, and properties against the hostile invasions and cruel depredations of their enemies." This was the first act of Congress in favor of absolute independence of Great Britain. The recommendation was generally followed, but not without opposition. New Hampshire had prepared a temporary State government in January, 1776. The royal charters of Rhode Island and Connecticut were considered sufficient for independent local self-government. New Jersey adopted a State constitution July 2, 1776; Virginia, July 5; Pennsylvania, July 15; Maryland, Aug. 14; Delaware, Sept. 20; North Carolina, Dec. 18; Georgia, Feb. 5, 1777; New York, April 20; South Carolina, March 19, 1778; and Massachusetts, March 2, 1780.

For all practical purposes—even to the extent of alterations of the constitutions, except in a few States where different provisions were made—the supreme power was vested in the respective legislatures, which, excepting Pennsylvania and Georgia, consisted of two branches. The more numerous branch retained the name it had borne in colonial times. In Massachusetts and other States it was the House of Representatives; in Virginia, the House of Burgesses; in North Carolina, the House of Commons; in other

States, the House of Assembly. In some of the States the colonial title of council was given to the other House. Virginia called it the Senate, an appellation afterwards adopted by other States. This branch of government was to fill the place of the former Colonial Council. All the States excepting Georgia established or contained some supreme tribunal authorized to review and correct the decisions of inferior courts. In Georgia the several county courts had final jurisdiction. In New York the Senate constituted the Supreme Court of Errors, assisted by the chancellor and the judges. In New Jersey the governor and council constituted the court of appeals. In Virginia a court of appeals was composed of the admiralty and chancery judges, and the judges of the General Court. In Maryland and South Carolina the presiding judges of the district courts composed a court of appeals, but did not extend to chancery cases. The Supreme Court of North Carolina fulfilled the same functions, as did courts with the same, or nearly the same, titles in Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Delaware.

State Holidays. See HOLIDAYS, LEGAL.

State Laws, UNIFORM. The following plea for a unification of State laws, especially such as relate to matters of private right, is contributed by Hon. Lewis N. Dembitz, of Kentucky. In this connection the reader is referred to the title, DIVORCE LAWS, UNIFORM.

In 1856 the German "Bund" (Confederation) was a much looser aggregation of the German states than the American Union under the old Articles of Confederation. But the business men of all Germany felt the inconvenience of the great diversity of the laws among their thirty odd kingdoms, grand and small duchies, principalities and free cities, on all subjects of trade and business. Austria and Prussia were then the leading German powers; the former had most of its provinces outside, the latter over three-fourths of them inside, of the German Bund. Prussia, the strongest and wealthiest of the truly German States, was itself, as to its general and commercial laws, divided into three zones: the eastern being governed by a code adopted in 1792, known as the "Landrecht"; some small districts to the west thereof, acquired in 1815, had retained the "Gemeine Recht"—that is, the imperial Roman law, as gradually adapted to modern use; while the lands along the Rhine adhered to the code Napoleon, which had been introduced there during the French domination. Like conditions prevailed in some of the other states, in which the smaller districts, conglomerated at the recasting of boundaries in 1803, enjoyed each its own system of laws. Now, though such diversity may work tolerably when it affects the laws regarding the tenure, the conveyance or the descent of land, it soon becomes intolerable, in a commercial age, when it affects the laws of trade and commerce in communities bound to each other by railroads and telegraph wires, and depending on one another by the daily exchange of articles of food and wear, of machinery and raw material, and dealing together without regard to state lines, past or present.

And so, under a resolution of the Frankfort Diet, a mere gathering of ambassadors from the sovereign states of the "Bund," a board of commissioners appointed by most (not all) of the several kingdoms, duchies, and cities, met at Nuremberg to elaborate a German code of commerce. The commissioners adjourned later on to Hamburg, to draw from its sea-air the proper inspiration for the marine chapters of commercial law. After five years' labors, in 1861, the code was completed; it was then laid before the legislative bodies of the different states. The Prussian Landtag adopted it by a unanimous vote in the House of Deputies, and with only one dissent in the House of Lords. Nearly all the law-making bodies of the other German states followed in Prussia's lead. A uniform law on bills and notes had been framed by a conference and adopted by the separate states somewhat earlier, and with much less loss of time or friction.

It was thus shown that, where the need exists, communities almost wholly independent of each other, but connected by bonds of trade and of a common race and speech, can be gotten to adopt uniform laws.

A need for a greater uniformity of law is felt among the people of the several

American States, similar to the necessity which years ago led the governments and parliaments of the sovereign states in Germany first into conferences at which a common "Wechselrecht" (law of negotiable paper), and a common "Handelsrecht" (commercial law) were worked out, and lastly to the adoption by each state separately of the laws recommended by the conferences. It is true that the American Constitution intrusts Congress with power to legislate at its own will for the whole country upon everything that pertains to the high seas, to copyrights and patents, and to travel and transportation between one State and another, or between our own country and foreign nations. It is highly proper, in the interest of human freedom, that the several States alone have the power to pass laws on other matters of private right; that each community can carry into effect its own views as to what is fair or humane, and what is against good manners and public policy; and there is no desire among right-minded men that the field of congressional jurisdiction should be widened, or that the field of State legislation should be narrowed. But undoubtedly there are many subjects on which the laws of the several States differ from each other, either broadly, or in some slight detail, to the great detriment and inconvenience of those whose business interests outrun their immediate State lines; and these differences are in most cases accidental—that is, they do not flow from a difference in sentiment or in policy. If New Hampshire permits the insolvent debtor to retain a homestead of only $500 in value, while Texas allows him to keep a homestead worth more than $5,000, not only as against ordinary creditors, but even against the man to whom he and his wife have freely and voluntarily mortgaged it, the difference springs from the diverging sentiments which an old and staid community, and those which a young and roving population entertains about the sacredness of contracts on the one hand, and about wide elbow-room and freedom from care on the other. On such a subject it is not likely that either State would yield its policy even in part, so as to meet on common ground for the sake of uniformity. But if Georgia and six other States require the attestation of three witnesses to a will, while thirty-seven other States are satisfied with the signatures of two witnesses, and Pennsylvania requires no attestation at all; or again, if many of our States allow three days of grace on a matured bill of exchange, while in other States "grace" is done away with, and a bill or note must be paid on the day named, there is no sentiment at the bottom of all this, no question of good policy. One law on these subjects is pretty much as good as the other, but the coexistence of both laws often leads to a failure of justice. A testator owning lands in Georgia makes his will in Ohio, before two witnesses, and the devisee of the Georgia lands is thrown out. Again, in the matter of divorce, the policy of the several States as to causes for untying the knot differs greatly, varying from no full divorce from any cause whatever in South Carolina, to eight or more causes in the Northwest, providing for every conceivable case in which husband and wife cannot agree. This is all right; it is the very object of State independence that each community shall determine such questions for itself; but there is no reason why the plaintiff's "domicile" in the State in which suit is brought, without any named length of residence, should be deemed sufficient in Virginia, while a residence of six months is required, in a few other States, and of even two years elsewhere.

A movement similar to that which has led to one common code on commercial paper, and another common code on commerce in all its branches, for the then disunited States of Germany, was begun in the United States in 1888, mainly upon the impulse given by F. Jesup Stimpson's painstaking compilation of *Constitutions and Statutes* of the American States, a book which set the needless divergence of their statutes forth in a glaring light. A bill was introduced in the New York legislature in that year, again in 1889, and again in 1890, under which a board of three commissioners was appointed, together with a salaried secretary, the members of the board to meet in conference with commissioners from other States. Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Delaware, New Jersey, and

Georgia also appointed commissioners in the course of the following year and made small appropriations towards defraying the cost of the conferences. The movement has been kept up at meetings of the inter-State commissioners, and it has greatly widened, for as many as thirty-one States have been represented, though never all of them at the same time. The writer first learned about the movement in 1896, when five or six of the conferences had already met. Not only was Kentucky, his own State, unrepresented, but neither her governor nor her leading lawyers or politicians knew anything about it. The other two lawyers whom the governor appointed, along with the writer, as commissioners from his State, though men in large practice, and of well-known public spirit, first heard of this movement, that had been in progress for over seven years, when the appointments were offered to them. When the writer came to Saratoga, on Aug. 15, 1898, having mislaid his copy of the printed notice sent out to members, he had to ask more than a dozen lawyers, hotel clerks, public officers, etc., before he hit upon one man who could direct him to the place of meeting. In short, the whole work has thus far been carried on, so to say, in a dark corner.

Yet, even thus, there have been some notable results. The foremost among these is the elaboration of a bill "relating to negotiable instruments," covering the whole "law merchant" in all details in 198 sections. This was agreed upon at the meeting of the commissioners in 1896, and was transmitted by them to the governors of all the States that were represented or had made appointments, and when the conference met for the eighth time in the course of last summer, we heard the gratifying news that this bill had been enacted into law by the legislatures of seven States (among them New York and Massachusetts), and that it had been passed by the House of Representatives of the United States, as a law to govern commercial paper in the District of Columbia, awaiting only the concurrence of the Senate at the winter session. An important act was adopted at the seventh meeting on the execution and acknowledgment of written instruments. One adopted at the eighth and last meeting deals with the transfer of corporate stock, the latter having been enacted by some of the New England legislatures after it had been elaborated by a committee, but before it had been agreed upon in full conference. Misunderstandings will often occur when the citizens of two States, whose laws differ, either on the conveyance of land, or on the transfer of corporate shares, deal with each other, unless each knows the laws of both States. But this is most likely to happen when the law is the same in both.

To gain an idea of the work which the conferences have cut out for themselves, it is necessary only to look at the following list of standing committees, which were appointed in 1896:

On commercial laws, on wills, on marriage and divorce, on deeds and other conveyances, on certificates to depositions and notarial forms, on weights and measures, on State action as to Presidential electors, on hours of labor in factories, on insolvency, on insurance, on trading corporations, on descent and distribution.

Some of these subjects, such as factory regulations, do perhaps fall outside of the true province of our organization, as they appeal to feelings, which differ greatly between section and section; if so, lengthened discussions would show a broad divergence even within the conference, and the impracticable subject would soon be dropped.

It might be objected that any labor bestowed on making our State laws more uniform than they now are, would be thrown away because the forty-eight State and Territorial legislatures, and Congress legislating for the federal district, are constantly busy grinding out new statutes, and would undo the work of unification more quickly than it could be accomplished. But just here, the writer believes, a system of laws made uniform at an expense of long efforts of many men would bear its finest fruits. As soon as the people begin to enjoy the benefits of uniform State laws, the sentiment that uniformity once attained must not be rashly disturbed upon a light motion, or to gratify the whim or the private interests of a State legislator, could be relied on to block the way of reckless, and still more of selfish, innovators.

The laws of all the American States,

with the single exception of Louisiana, are derived from the common law of England, and from the acts of Parliament passed by way of amendment of the common law; the laws enacted in the several States since their separation from the mother-country have generally been framed on the same lines. Thus, all the States in which the English law preferring the first-born son in the descent of land ever prevailed have enacted new laws establishing equality between the sons and daughters, the brothers and sisters of the decedent; all the States have provided for the recording of deeds and mortgages; all the States have given to the creditor the means of reaching the lands and effects of absent debtors by attachment; all the States have curtailed the power of the husband over the wife's property; nearly all the States have regulated the exercise of "testamentary powers"; nearly all of them have enacted general laws under which private corporations can be formed; all but one of the States allow the grant of absolute divorces: and thus we might go through all the lines along which the framers of new laws have given play to their energies. And what is more, the statutes on all these subjects have generally been moulded upon a very few patterns, either a British act of Parliament or an act first passed by the legislature of New York, of Virginia, of Massachusetts, or of Connecticut. Thus the chapter of the *Revised Statutes* of New York which deals with "Testamentary Powers," and the chapter on "Uses and Trusts," have been copied almost literally into the codes of Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota; the law marching westward in pretty close touch with the parallel of latitude. Thus the task of those aiming at uniformity is somewhat simplified; they have in many fields of legislation to deal only with four or five groups of States, not with forty-five separate units.

The Civil War did much to strengthen the national pan-American feeling of our citizens, North and South, East and West; and thus to lessen the stubbornness with which heretofore the men of one or the other State would in former years cling to some outlandish or fanciful law, just because it was peculiar to that State. While heretofore the benefits of uniform laws might have appealed only to the practical sense of business men, while running counter to sentiments of local pride and of State rights, business reasons and patriotic sentiment may now be found arrayed on the same side. It is only necessary now to bring the importance of this movement home to the lawyers and law-givers of the several States, to bring about its speedy success.

What is needed is, first, the steady and active participation of at least thirty-six out of the forty-five States by commissioners appointed under authority of law in each of them. It is not necessary that more than one person should attend from each State.

Secondly, the commissioners, in order to expedite the work, should meet twice in each year, each time for at least three days, and a sufficient sum should be appropriated from some source to pay their travelling and hotel expenses, so as to insure a good attendance. Any greater compensation is unnecessary; it might even be of evil, as it would attract men animated rather by greed for gain than by pride in their profession and love for the public good.

Thirdly, the conference should also have at its disposal a small fund out of which to compensate some specialist for drawing up the more elaborate bills which must be drafted. Small appropriations have heretofore been made by some of the States; and it was found possible to set aside the sum of $1,000 out of these as an honorarium to the painstaking author of the conference bill on negotiable paper, a gentleman who was not himself one of the State commissioners.

When we once have thirty-six States represented, we would not have long to wait for the remaining nine. When full meetings are held twice a year, the legislatures of the several States will hear of the proceedings and will heed them; and a very small amount will suffice for all the expenditure—that is, the travelling and hotel expenses of the members, the compensation of law drafters, and the printing of the yearly or half-yearly reports.

The sum of $15,000 a year would fully meet all these needs, and in about five or six years pretty much of the work which

is really desirable could be accomplished. Of course, if the Congress of the United States is willing to take the matter in hand, this sum would be readily placed in the yearly sundry civil bill. But if Congress is unwilling to do so much, it might, at least, as the legislature for the District of Columbia, direct that three lawyers from that district be named every year by competent authority, that they be paid their expenses, and that a small sum be set aside towards the general fund.

State Militia. See MILITIA, UNITED STATES.

State of Frankland. See FRANKLAND.

State Regulation of Railways. Unjust discriminations by various railroads between individuals, communities, States, and classes of traffic, resulted in legislation on the part of the States by which the railroads were controlled and sometimes unjustly treated. The inter-State traffic being under the control of Congress is regulated by various acts of Congress, and a commission was appointed for their enforcement. Pooling being prohibited, unrestrained competition brought about fresh evils. The railroads during the past few years have been striving to bring about an equitable division of the traffic, without violating the statutes, through consolidation and the forming of traffic associations.

Mr. Harry Perry Robinson, editor of *The Railway Age*, contributes the following discussion on the subject:

If the founders of the republic could have foreseen the extraordinary development of our railway system, they would undoubtedly never have permitted the present anomalous conditions to arise—conditions wherein there is constant conflict between the national government and the several States in matters pertaining to the regulation of rates. It would be an incalculable blessing, both to the people and the companies, if the railway system of the United States could be treated as a national unit under federal control only. It would then be possible to get a perspective view of the net-work of lines as a whole and to formulate a scheme of just and harmonious legislation, under which the railways of one section would be placed in proper relation to those of other sections, and the scale of taxation and the stringency of rate-regulation could be adapted and modified in accordance with local conditions.

At present it is the ambition and endeavor of each State to secure rates no higher—and perhaps a little lower—than its neighbor. Kansas sees no reason why it should not have as favorable rates as Missouri or Indiana; Missouri and Indiana will not tolerate any disadvantage as compared with Ohio; Ohio insists on equality with Pennsylvania and Massachusetts. Viewed by itself, the ambition of each individual State is intelligible and even praiseworthy; but the net result in practice is intolerable injustice to the railways of the more sparsely settled sections. The recent decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Nebraska maximum rate case, rendered March 7, 1898, will go a long way towards protecting the companies against this injustice.

Briefly, what the Supreme Court says is that a State legislature has no right to impose any rates for the carrying of freight or passengers which are not high enough to produce a "fair return" on the "fair value" of the property of the railway companies; also that the question whether any given rates are adequate or not is not a matter which a legislature can decide, but must ultimately be a subject of judicial inquiry.

This is far from being new doctrine. Former decisions had declared that the States' right of regulation "is itself not without limitation"; that railways "have the right to live"; that they cannot be compelled "to carry persons or property without reward"; that they are entitled to "some compensation" for their services over and above the cost of operation. In so far, therefore, as the court declares the right of railway companies to receive a return on the value of their properties, it only re-enunciates well-established principles.

The court also, however, makes a definite approach to an authoritative definition of the basis on which the "fair value" of the properties is to be calculated. The decision says:

"In order to ascertain that value, the

original cost of construction, the amount expended in permanent improvement, the amount and market value of its bonds and stock, the present as compared with the original cost of construction, the probable earning capacity of the property under any rates prescribed by statute, and the sum required to meet operating expenses, are all matters for consideration, and to be given such weight as may be just and right in the particular case. What the company is entitled to ask is a fair return upon the value of that which it employs for the public convenience."

One other sentence must be quoted:

"In our judgment, it must be held that the reasonableness or unreasonableness of rates prescribed by a State for the transportation of persons and property wholly within its limits must be determined without reference to the business of an inter-State character done by the carrier, or to the profits derived from that business. The State cannot justify unreasonably low rates for domestic transportation, considered alone, upon the ground that the carrier is earning large profits on its inter-State business, over which, so far as rates are concerned, the State has no control."

That is to say, that the rates imposed in Nebraska (or in any other State) by the State legislature must be such as will give a fair return on the railway properties *inside the State of Nebraska* measured by the volume of business *in Nebraska*. A railway company—say the Burlington road—cannot be compelled to do Nebraska business at unprofitable figures, on the ground that its lines in, perhaps, Illinois are so profitable that the company as a whole will still make money. There are some results, not yet generally recognized, which follow from this decision.

In the first place, the amount of that "fair value" of the railway properties is a question which will now press for authoritative settlement, even more urgently than heretofore. That it is an extremely large and complicated question is sufficiently shown by the fact that not long ago a scheme was formulated for presentation to Congress providing for the appointment of a commission to ascertain the present value of the railways of the country, which commission was to be allowed three years in which to complete the work and $1,000,000 for its expenses. Meanwhile, in the absence of any authoritative guidance, two widely differing sets of opinions are held on the subject. Railway officers and engineers with practical unanimity say that the railways could not be reproduced for, and are worth, the full face value of their capital stock and bonds, about $60,000 a mile. The opponents of the railways, especially the Populist politicians in Western States, declare that from $25,000 to $30,000 would be a liberal estimate for the lines of the country as a whole. This is not a question which can be discussed in this article, but we are at least safe in assuming that the lowest estimate made is too low—that is, that the fair value of the railways on the average is above $30,000 a mile.

That is to say, that, on the average for the whole country, no schedule of rates which will not, on the volume of business done, produce a "fair return" on $30,000 a mile can be legally imposed on the railways.

This, as has been said, is on the average value of the properties of the railways of the United States as a whole. But the Supreme Court says that in any State the reasonableness of rates must be determined with reference to the railway lines and earnings in that State only. Henceforward, therefore, the statistics of the individual States are to be of importance. At present such railway statistics as are obtainable in the respective States (with the exception of a very few) are most unsatisfactory. Of the Western States, Texas is the only one which has made any effort to arrive at an accurate valuation of its railway properties, and the Texas valuations are not regarded with much confidence. Railway companies could not, except at enormous expense and inconvenience, make their operating divisions coincide with State boundaries; and to segregate accurately the right proportion of the earnings of all traffic passing over the lines inside State borders would be an almost impossible task. Only thirty-two States have any board or office—railroad commission or otherwise—which makes even

a pretence of collecting and publishing the State railway statistics. The reports of some of the existing boards are entirely valueless, while from nearly all general conclusions for comparative purposes can be deduced only approximately and by laborious calculations of mileage and percentages.

None the less, we can with patience arrive at some figures from a majority of the States which will give us a nearly accurate idea of the relations of the railways of the different sections of the country to each other from the stand-point of their earning capacity, from which, by reference to such assumption as we can make of the "fair value" of the properties, we can in general terms see what possibilities there are, in view of the recent decision, of any legislative rate reductions in each State.

The public is pardonably distrustful of railway statistics as they emanate from the offices of individual companies. One item there is, however, in railway accounting which is never suspected of being manipulated, and it is the item which is most valuable for our present purpose. This is the total receipts from all traffic before those receipts are subjected to deductions in the companies' offices. The earnings before they appear in the form of "net income" may be frittered away in extravagance or mismanagement. The "balance available for dividends" is a deceitful and elusive quantity. But in the "gross earnings" we have one positive and trustworthy index. Given the gross earnings of all lines in a State, it is easy to find the average to the mile of road. This average is the maximum which, for purposes of State legislation, it is possible for the roads to earn. In practice some lines may earn more than their share and some less; but from the point of view of a legislature legislating for all roads alike, this average earning is the highest gross return which it is practicable for the railways to receive for their services.

Moreover (again recognizing that in practice there will be variations in the capacities of different roads) there is no difficulty in finding, so far as the State as a whole is concerned, what net profit these gross earnings ought to represent.

If a company pays all its expenses and taxes for 70 per cent. of its gross earnings, it is doing reasonably well. In the average Western State it is unusual for more than 7 or 8 per cent. of the gross earnings to get to the stock-holder as dividends. But interest charges and other things have already been paid. If we allow 30 per cent. of the gross earnings as a balance available for all payments on capital (whether interest or dividend), as well as all "sinking-fund" and "surplus" requirements, we are treating the railways fairly. The New York Central last year operated for 66.96 per cent. of its gross earnings; the Chicago and Alton (an admirably managed and economical road) got below 63 per cent.; the Wabash in its last report pointed with pride to the fact that it had its operating expenses down to 69.22 per cent.; the Boston and Maine spent 67.39. The Chicago and Northwestern got down to 61. According to the inter-State commerce commission, in the last six years the ratio of operating expenses to gross earnings on the railways of the country has varied between 66.6 per cent. (in 1892) and 68.14 per cent. (in 1894), the ratio last year having been 67.2 per cent. Taxes amounted to 3.5 per cent. of the gross earnings. The two together last year made 70.7 per cent. If we allow the companies, therefore, 70 per cent. of their gross earnings, on the average, for operation and to pay taxes, the remaining 30 per cent. is a fair allowance for net income. An average company—especially in the West—which keeps its expenses and tax payments inside of 70 per cent. of its gross, cannot be very extravagant, and legislators and the public have assurance that there are no excessive salaries or illegitimate profits, nor any "corruption funds" or other questionable items smuggled in to increase expenses and keep down the dividend showing.

Of the thirty-two States which have railroad commissions (or similar bodies) there are twenty-eight from whose reports it is possible to arrive at the gross earnings of all railways in the State with something like accuracy.

The following table shows these earnings per mile in each of these States, together with a calculation of the 30 per cent. available for net income, and, finally,

on how much capital that net income will pay interest at the rate of 6 per cent.

EARNINGS PER MILE.

State.	Gross Earnings Per Mile.	30 Per Cent. of Gross Earnings.	Being 6 Per Cent. Upon:
North Carolina	$2,864	$859	$14,320
South Carolina	3,125	937	15,620
North Dakota	3,419	1,025	17,090
Georgia	3,484	1,045	17,420
Nebraska	3,487	1,046	17,433
Texas	3,742	1,122	18,710
Alabama	3,781	1,134	18,900
Michigan	3,835	1,150	19,170
Kansas	4,482	1,344	22,610
Missouri	4,768	1,430	23,860
Iowa	4,792	1,437	23,960
Wisconsin	5,346	1,603	26,730
Maine	5,446	1,633	27,230
Kentucky	6,003	1,800	30,010
Virginia	6,393	1,902	31,710
Minnesota	6,592	1,977	32,960
Illinois	6,806	2,041	34,030
California	8,199	2,459	40,990
Ohio	8,363	2,508	41,610
Massachusetts	10,118	3,035	50,590
New Hampshire	11,361	3,408	56,800
New York	13,787	4,136	68,930
Pennsylvania	15,103	4,530	75,510
Connecticut	15,698	4,709	78,490
Rhode Island	16,223	4,866	81,110
New Jersey	18,777	5,633	93,883
Vermont	18,932	5,679	94,660

This will be found to be an extraordinarily interesting table. Here we have that perspective view of the country as a whole which is necessary before any broad handling of the railway problem is possible.

The 30 per cent. of income to profit in each of the last two States is, it will be seen, larger than the whole gross earnings of any one of the first thirteen. Nothing could better illustrate the necessity of having some such basis of comparison than does the table itself. It is the demonstration of its own importance. To legislate for railways in a State where they cannot earn interest on $15,000 of capital on the same basis as in States where they can earn interest on over $94,000 is obviously absurd, though, as an abstract proposition, Western States will rarely recognize the fact.

In a general way railway men know that a road that earns $10,000 a mile, gross, is in moderately easy circumstances —or ought to be. With $8,000 a mile or less, there is need of economy. If the gross earnings are below $5,000 a mile, there must be difficulty in making both ends meet. The above figures show why this is so.

A road which earns $5,000 a mile, gross, after operating economically and paying its taxes, has not enough left to pay 6 per cent. interest on $25,000 a mile. That is a condition which sooner or later means bankruptcy.

A road which earns $8,000 a mile, gross, can operate and pay taxes and then have 6 per cent. left on $40,000 a mile. That is not a condition which permits of extravagance, because no road running through a region sufficiently populated to produce $8,000 a mile, gross, can have cost less than $40,000 a mile to build. But such a road should keep solvent.

A road which earns above $10,000 a mile ought to be able to operate and pay interest on $50,000 a mile without difficulty.

The States in the above table, then, fall naturally into three groups:

1. Those wherein the railways earn, gross, less than $5,000 a mile. This includes eleven States. The railways in the most prosperous of the eleven (Iowa) cannot as a whole earn interest on $24,000 a mile, while in the poorest (North Carolina) they cannot earn it on $15,000. Here we have certain concrete facts. These facts cannot be manipulated. There is no question here of watered stock, or of salaries, or dividends. The gross earnings are the maximum that the railways have to divide among them. The 30 per cent. balance is what each company, if it is alert in a business way so as to get its full share of the gross, and then operates economically so as not to spend too much, *ought to* be able to have left. When, on this basis of computation, a railroad, no matter how it behaves, cannot earn interest at 6 per cent. on $25,000 it is in a bad way. For the people of the States wherein the railways are shown to be in these circumstances to attempt to compel any lower rates than are now in force or to lay any other additional burdens on the companies, is, setting considerations of justice and the recent Supreme Court decision aside, most injudicious from the stand-point of public expediency. A company which (no matter how hard it works or how economically it operates) is permanently confronted by an inability to earn interest on $25,000 a mile cannot possibly con-

tinue for any long term of years to give the public adequate and safe service; however hard it may strive to keep up appearances, the condition of the property must deteriorate; accidents will grow more frequent; depot facilities will be inadequate; passenger accommodations will grow poorer, and, most certainly of all, there will not be cars and engines enough to move crops or handle any extraordinary business when the emergency arises. It will not be the fault of the railway company. The responsibility rests on the conditions of the territory in which it operates. It cannot furnish a first-class service on an inadequate volume of business any more than a general store in a small town can offer the same advantages to its customers as are furnished by a great New York house. There is probably no other country in the world wherein railway companies attempt to operate on a business which will produce less than $5,000 a mile gross earnings, unless they have a guarantee of aid from the government. In this country it would be a far wiser policy for the people—through the federal government or through the States—to assist the roads in unprofitable localities than to talk of imposing new burdens. In almost all—so far as is known, in all—other countries this is done.

The States in which, as we see from the above list, there is not business enough to produce a profit on railway operation are the following:

North Carolina,	Alabama,
South Carolina,	Michigan,
North Dakota,	Kansas,
Georgia,	Missouri,
Nebraska,	Iowa.
Texas,	

Other States there are for which the figures are not available, but which undoubtedly fall in the same category. These are:

South Dakota,	Utah,
Montana,	Wyoming,
Washington,	Florida,
Oregon,	Mississippi,
Arizona,	Indian Territory,
Oklahoma,	Colorado,
New Mexico,	and probably
Nevada,	Louisiana.

In all of these States it would be an incomparably wiser policy to lighten the burdens of the railways as much as possible, and to encourage them to keep their properties in fitting condition to give adequate public service, rather than to attempt to further curtail revenues which are already inadequate.

But it is not necessary now to reason only on grounds of public expediency. The Supreme Court of the United States has furnished a more powerful argument. The recent decision places an absolute veto in the way of any legislation in any one of these twenty-six States which will reduce rates or cut down earnings. In each and every one of them, no law which by any amount, however small, adds to the burdens of the railway companies can be constitutional.

2. The next group of States is that wherein the railways receive on an average between $5,000 and $8,500 a mile, gross. As we see from the above table a company which earns above $5,000 a mile, gross, may, if it is properly managed, pay interest on an investment of $25,000 a mile. If it earns above $8,000 a mile, gross, it ought to be able to pay interest on $40,000 a mile. The average bonded debt of the railways of the country is $30,126 a mile. The figures given above (see Kentucky) show that it takes $6,000 a mile gross earnings to earn 6 per cent. interest on this amount. Roads, therefore, which earn between $5,000 and $6,000 a mile, gross, are likely to have need of rigid economy before they can meet their interest payments. With more than $6,000 a mile gross earnings, there is a possibility of earning some dividend on stocks. With $8,000 a mile, gross, a company should be able to pay 6 per cent. on the average bonded debt, and, in addition, 6 per cent. on $10,000 (or 3 per cent. on $20,000) of stock to the mile. This is by no means affluence. Take Ohio for example, where the average gross earnings are $8,363 a mile, and California, where the gross earnings are $8,199 a mile. In the former State the number of large cities, where terminals are costly, and in the latter the heavy mountain passes with their great engineering difficulties, and the expensiveness of labor and supplies, have made the railroads there cost considerably more than the $41,810 and the $40,990 a mile

on which the volume of business permits an earning of interest at 6 per cent.

The Supreme Court, it has been seen, plainly stipulates that in addition to the "original cost of construction," the "amount expended in permanent improvements" and "the market value of the stocks and bonds" are also to be taken into consideration in ascertaining the "fair value" of the properties. In at least two of the States in this group legislation is now threatened to reduce passenger fares. The railway companies will have no difficulty whatever in showing any such legislation to be plainly confiscatory and unconstitutional. The States in this group are:

Wisconsin,	Minnesota,
Maine,	Illinois,
Kentucky,	California,
Virginia,	Ohio.

To which may be added:

West Virginia,	Delaware,
Tennessee,	Maryland.

3. There remain on our list eight States which show an average earning capacity of $10,000 and upward. In these the question of whether any legislation could be enacted which would reduce earnings without cutting below the limit of a fair return, is less easily decided. The opinion of the writer is that on the Eastern lines as a whole, with very few exceptions, the cost of permanent improvements out of capital, since the lines were originally built, has been so great that even the present earnings do no more than make a fair return on the value of the properties. It is not, however, in these States that the pressure for anti-railway legislation is most active. It is in the States of the South and West, and the magnitude of the benefit of the Supreme Court's decision to the railways of these sections will only come to be understood with the passage of time. See RAILROAD RATE LAW.

State Rights, a term synonymous, as popularly used, with State supremacy. The word "rights" involves a sacred idea in the minds of all men, and that word was more effective in swaying the multitude than "supremacy" or "sovereignty." It was always used in communicating with the people directly by the advocates of State supremacy. See STATE SOVEREIGNTY.

State-rights Party, a party that first appeared in conspicuous form in the convention of 1787 that framed the national Constitution. In that convention it grew out of a claim for each State to have the right of equal representation in the first branch or House of Representatives of the government, instead of a proportional representation according to population. This was strenuously insisted upon by the smaller States; but finally, at the suggestion of Dr. Franklin, it was agreed that the representation in the first branch of the national legislature should be in the proportion of one member for every 40,000 inhabitants, and an equality in the second branch (the Senate) as it exists at the present day. See APPORTIONMENT, CONGRESSIONAL.

STATE SOVEREIGNTY

State Sovereignty. The advocates of the political doctrine of State sovereignty claim that the citing of the names of the different States concerned in the treaty of peace in 1783 implied the independent sovereignty of each. The opponents of the doctrine say that they were named only to define what States were included in the treaty; that they were independent commonwealths, but not sovereignties; that the latter term implies no superior; that the colonies and States had never been in that exalted position; that while they were colonies they were under Great Britain, and by the Declaration of Independence they assumed only the position of equals in a national league, acknowledging the general government which they thus established a live, superior, controlling power; that they adopted a broad signet for the common use bearing the words, "Seal of the United States," as the insignia of its authority; that when a treaty of peace was negotiated the States did not each choose a separate commissioner for the purpose, but three agents were appointed by the general Congress as representatives of the nationality of the con-

federation; that when, a few years afterwards, they adopted a Constitution, whose preamble began, "We the people (not the States) of the United States," it was ratified by the *people* assembled in representative conventions, and not by the State legislatures, and so disowned all independent State sovereignty, which the opponents of the doctrine declare never existed either as colonies or States. James Madison, in a letter to Edmund Randolph, in April, 1787, wrote: "I hold it for a fundamental point that an individual independence of the States is utterly irreconcilable with the idea of aggregate sovereignty." Washington, in a letter to John Jay, in March, 1787, on the subject of a national Constitution, said: "A thirst for power, and the bantling—I had liked to have said the *monster*—sovereignty, which has taken such fast hold of the States individually, will, when joined by the many whose personal consequence in the line of State politics will, in a manner, be annihilated, form a strong phalanx against it.

The Doctrine of State Rights.—This question is ably discussed in a paper of great historical interest by Jefferson Davis, which was written a few weeks before his death.

To do justice to the motives which actuated the soldiers of the Confederacy, it is needful that the cause for which they fought should be fairly understood; for no degree of skill, valor, and devotion can sanctify service in an unrighteous cause.

We revere the memory of Washington, not so much for his achievements in arms as for his self-abnegation and the unfaltering devotion with which he defended the inalienable rights of the people of all the United States. This made him "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," and for this the great English poet wrote: "But one were worthy of the name of Washington." Yet he was what no Southern soldier in the war between the States could, with truth, be called—a rebel—and, without much extravagance in the figure, was said to have fought the battles of the Revolution with a halter round his neck. Had there been no inalienable rights, or had they not been violated, he could not rightfully have been absolved from his allegiance to the crown, or conscientiously have felt that he had not broken his faith as subject to the lawful powers of the British government, in taking up arms against it.

In 1776 thirteen of the British colonies in America sent delegates to a general congress, who there, for the colonies they represented, made the declaration "that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States." Therefore these, like other British colonies in America, were dependencies of Great Britain; and to justify their declaration of independence, a formidable arraignment of the King for his violation of their mutual obligations and rights was submitted to the judgment of mankind. It has been customary among us annually to read this declaration to admiring audiences; and what American has raised his voice against the conclusion deduced? The permeating principle was that every people had the right to alter or abolish their government when it ceased to answer the ends for which it was instituted. Each State decided to exercise that right, and all of the thirteen united to sustain it. Great Britain denied the existence of the asserted right and a long war ensued. After a heavy sacrifice of life and treasure, the treaty of Paris was negotiated in 1783, by which Great Britain recognized the independence of the States separately, not as one body politic, but severally, each one being named in the act of recognition.

In the year succeeding the Declaration of Independence—*i. e.*, 1777—the thirteen States by which it had been made sent delegates to a general congress, and they agreed to "certain articles of confederation and perpetual union between the States" they represented, and that "the style of the confederacy shall be the United States of America." That no purpose existed to consolidate the States into one body politic is manifest from the terms of the Second Article, which was: "Each State retains its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right which is not by this confederation expressly delegated to the United States in Congress assembled." The meaning of this article is quite plain,

if it be borne in mind that under the confederation the congress was of States, each having one vote only, irrespective of population or the number of delegates in attendance, and the expressly delegated powers were such as it was agreed that the congress of the States might use, all else being reserved to the States separately. Under these Articles of Confederation the war of the Revolution was conducted.

In the face of the Declaration of Independence, and of the Articles of Confederation, and of the treaty of Paris, he who denies that in 1783 each State was a sovereign, free, and independent community must have much hardihood or little historical knowledge.

After the independence had been gained, for which so much was risked and no little lost, when the condensing pressure of war was removed, the fact became apparent that it was impracticable to administer the general affairs of the Union without the possession of additional powers. In 1787 a convention met to amend the Articles of Confederation, and ended by proposing a new form of government which was to be submitted to the States, and, if ratified by nine of them, should go into effect as between the States so ratifying it. If only nine consented, what was to become of the other four, and what of the plighted faith to a perpetual union? We are not left to speculation with different numbers; the case did actually occur. Eleven States ratified; two refused; what was to be done? The expedient of raising an army to coerce North Carolina and Rhode Island into an acceptance of the Constitution or new form of government seems not to have occurred to any one of that day, and the situation was especially embarrassing because the Thirteenth Article provided that the union should be perpetual, and that no alteration should be made in any of the Articles of Confederation, "unless such alteration be agreed to in a Congress of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislature of every State."

An easy escape from the dilemma was found; it was to disregard the pledges and prohibitions of Article Thirteen, secede from the confederation styled the United States of America, and form a new government with the same style as the old one. It was anticipated that some of the State legislatures would not confirm this procedure; therefore it was provided by the last article of the proposed new Constitution that the "ratification of the conventions of nine States" should suffice for its establishment "between the States so ratifying the same." It will be observed that the new Constitution was to be submitted for ratification to a higher authority than the Congress and State legislatures—viz., to conventions of the people of the States, the recognized form in which State sovereignty was represented. Mr. Madison, in the forty-third number of *The Federalist*, notices as a defect of the confederation that it had received no higher sanction than legislative ratification; hence, as provided in the last article of the new Constitution, it was to be submitted to our highest political authority—conventions of the people of the respective States.

That was the supreme authority which, according to the American theory, could alter or abolish their government, and by which, nine States concurring, it was proposed to dissolve the "perpetual union" of the confederation and establish a new one among themselves. In this connection the distinguished member from Massachusetts remarked: "If nine out of thirteen [States] can dissolve the compact, six out of nine will be just as able to dissolve the future one hereafter."

Mr. Madison, in *The Federalist*, to the question, "On what principle the confederation, which stands in the solemn form of a compact among the States, can be superseded without the unanimous consent of the parties to it?" answers: "By recurring to the absolute necessity of the case; to the great principle of self-preservation; to the transcendent law of nature and of nature's God, which declares that the safety and happiness of society are the objects at which all political institutions aim, and to which all such institutions must be sacrificed."

Thus the matter stood when the Constitution to form a more perfect union was adopted, not, as has been most unjustifiably asserted, by the people of the United States in mass, but by the people of the States, each acting in its own convention and ratifying at different dates, the first being Dec. 7, 1787, the last May 29, 1790.

In view of facts so generally known, or (if not so) accessible to every reader of American history, it is surprising that some have contended that the Union was formed by the people of the United States as one body politic.

Though the States by a voluntary compact created a general government and delegated to it enumerated powers, reserving all else to themselves, it has been attempted to deduce from these limited grants a supremacy for the agent over the States, and, consequently, to deny to the States of the Union the sovereignty they possessed as States of the confederation. No one has attempted to show by what grant of the Constitution it can be claimed that the States have surrendered their sovereignty, and it seems absurd to assume that by implication the great object for which our fathers staked all save honor could have been lost. But they were too watchful to leave the question open for argument. Therefore, though the body of the instrument was thought by its framers to be sufficiently explicit in its limitation of the powers of the general government to those expressly delegated, yet, in an abundance of caution, almost contemporaneously with the ratification of the compact, two amendments were proposed and adopted in the following words:

"Article IX. The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

"Article X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people."

Consolidationists, with more zeal than reason, have argued that the last two words in the Tenth Amendment referred to the whole people. But this is surely untenable; the only people known to the system were the people of a State or commonwealth; they only had been represented in the Congress or in the convention which framed the Constitution. To them that instrument had been submitted; by them it had been ratified. The expression fairly construed must mean the State governments, and the people of each State who held rights they had reserved from the control of their State government. Furthermore, the obvious purpose being to guard against the usurpation of undelegated power, it would have been worse than superfluous by reservation to provide protection for the whole people against themselves.

In claiming sovereignty for the States I must not be understood as meaning the State governments. When the word *State* is used, it means the people of an organized community. The founders of the American Republic never conferred or intended to confer sovereignty upon either State or federal governments.

If the people of the States, in forming a federal union, transferred their sovereignty, or any part of it, to whom was the transfer made? Not to the people of the United States in the aggregate, for there was no such political body. The articles of confederation in their front declared that each State retained its sovereignty, freedom, and independence; that could only mean the people in their organic character. In like manner the original constitution of Massachusetts declared: "The people inhabiting the territory formerly called the Province of Massachusetts Bay do hereby solemnly and mutually agree with each other to form themselves into a free, sovereign, and independent body politic, or State, by the name of The Commonwealth of Massachusetts." In the debates of the convention which formed the Constitution, as they are found reported in Elliot's *Debates*, there is abundant proof that the men who prepared the instrument recognized sovereignty as belonging to the people of the individual States; that there was no purpose to transfer it to the federal government, or to regard it as being divisible. The States intrusted to the federal government, as their agent, some of the functions of sovereignty, but the performance of these by authority of the people of the States did not involve a violation of a cardinal feature in the American theory that sovereignty belonged alone to the people, and the resolutions of ratification of the Constitution by the States show whether the purpose was to transfer the power or only to authorize its use.

The usual form of ratification was as in the following examples: "The delegates of the people of the State of New Hampshire, in the name and behalf of the peo-

ple of the State of New Hampshire," etc., and "the delegates of the people of Virginia, for and in behalf of the people of Virginia," etc., do assent to and ratify the said Constitution for the United States of America.

As had been done by Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and South Carolina in ratifying the Constitution, Virginia required certain amendments as a more explicit guarantee against consolidation, and accompanied the proposition with the following declaration: "That the powers granted under the Constitution, being derived from the people of the United States, may be resumed by them whenever the same shall be perverted to their injury or oppression, and that every power not granted thereby remains with them," etc. For whom were the delegates commissioned to speak? Only for the people of Virginia. By whom had grants been made? By the States severally, and the assertion could only mean that to each of them all undelegated power remained. Indeed, there was no other repository from which it could have been drawn; therefore no other in which it could have been said to remain.

New York was the eleventh State to assent to the compact of union, and her ratification was made more than seven months after that of Delaware, and was accompanied by a declaration of the principles on which her assent was given, from which the following extract is made: "That the powers of government may be reassumed by the people whensoever it shall become necessary to their happiness; that every power, jurisdiction, and right which is not, by the said Constitution, clearly delegated to the Congress of the United States, or the departments of the government thereof, remains to the people of the several States, or to their respective State governments, to whom they may have granted the same," etc.

Here, even more distinctly than before, is answered the question as to who were *the people* by whom the powers might be reassumed. Provision had been made for several modes of amending the Constitution by the joint action of the States, and if it had been the will of all the States to reform, or even to dissolve, the government, they would not have been obstructed, as they were under the Confederation, by a pledge to perpetual union or by a prohibition against any alteration of the Constitution except by unanimous consent of the States. Therefore, unless the right to reassume was asserted as belonging to any State being a party to the compact, the declaration was useless and seemingly without an object. Reassumption is the correlative of delegation.

By the published debates of the general convention of 1787 which prepared the Constitution, and of the State conventions to which it was severally submitted for approval or rejection as each should decide, and by the resolutions of ratification, it is clearly demonstrated that they did not surrender their dearly bought, most prized sovereignty, freedom, and independence, or commit the absurdity of attempting to delegate inalienable rights.

At that early period sectional rivalry was manifested, and some of the most influential advocates of the new Union felt the lurking danger of faction and sought to provide against it by means consistent with the perpetuity of the Union. Faction, with the tendency of majorities to oppress minorities, was the recognized cause of failure in former federations and republics. To protect the United States from that evil, it was sought to secure a balance of power between the North and the South, by so organizing the two Houses of Congress that neither section would have a majority in both. The purpose was good, but the calculation was bad, so that in a not-distant future the North, as a section, had a majority in both Houses of Congress and in the electoral colleges for the choice of the President. Party did for many years control faction, and principles, independent of latitude and longitude, formed the cement of political parties. Thus it was, as late as 1853, that that true patriot and friend of the Constitution, Franklin Pierce, could conscientiously say that, politically, he knew no North, no South, no East, no West.

The wise statesmen who formed the plan for the new Union of 1787–90, with admirable caution, required a material barrier to check majorities from aggression under the influence of self-interest and lust of dominion. They could not have been certain that their method of preserving the

balance of power between the sections would be permanently successful. What, then, was the remedy in case of violated compact and aggression upon reserved rights? None was stated, but the proposition to authorize the employment of force against a delinquent State was denounced on all sides of the convention and rejected without a division. In the original draft of the Constitution the term "national government" was written: to this expression Mr. Ellsworth objected, and moved to drop the word "national" and retain the proper title, "the United States"; which motion was unanimously adopted by the convention. Both the coercion of a State and the use of the term "national government" were emphatically condemned by the framers of the Constitution.

A compact was made between independent States by which expressly enumerated powers were delegated to a government instituted for their common benefit, which was a partnership without limitation. No mode of terminating it was specified, but Mr. Madison, than whom none was better informed of the opinions and purposes of the members of the convention, in the number of *The Federalist* heretofore quoted (which was an argument to justify secession from the confederation) wrote:

"It is an established doctrine on the subject of treaties that all articles are mutually conditions of each other; that a breach of any one article is a breach of the whole treaty; and that a breach committed by either of the parties absolves the others, and authorizes them, if they please, to pronounce the compact violated and void. Should it unhappily be necessary to appeal to these delicate truths for a justification for dispensing with the consent of particular States to a dissolution of the federal pact, will not the complaining parties find it a difficult task to answer the multiplied and important infractions with which they may be confronted? The time has been when it was incumbent on us all to veil the ideas which this paragraph exhibits."

It is unfortunate that the convention should have thought proper to veil the delicate truth and did not in plain terms announce the right of a State to secede from the Union whenever it should cease to answer the ends for which it was established—viz., to insure domestic tranquillity and promote the general welfare. Our past history distinctly shows how reluctant any State would be to sever her connection with the Union; and may it not reasonably be inferred that, if the right to withdraw had been recognized, there would have been additional care not to give just cause for the exercise of that right?

Though not expressed, the existence of the right was often asserted and rarely, if ever, denied anterior to 1861. It cannot be said that it was then for the first time formally asserted and therefore for the first time denied. The acquisition of Louisiana in 1803 created much dissatisfaction in the New England States, the reason of which was expressed by an eminent citizen of Massachusetts, who said that "the influence of our part of the Union must be diminished by the acquisition of more weight at the other extremity." (*Life of Cabot*, by Lodge, p. 334.)

In 1811, on the bill for the admission of Louisiana as a State of the Union, the Hon. Josiah Quincy, member of Congress from Massachusetts, said: "If this bill passes, it is my deliberate opinion that it is virtually a dissolution of this Union; that it will free the States from their moral obligation; and as it will be the right of all, so it will be the duty of some, definitely to prepare for a separation—amicably if they can, violently if they must."

The Hartford Convention assembled in December, 1814. From their published report the following extract is made: "If the Union be destined to dissolution by reason of the multiplied abuses of bad administration, it should, if possible, be the work of peaceable times and deliberate consent. . . . Whenever it shall appear that the causes are radical and permanent, a separation by equitable arrangement will be preferable to an alliance by constraint among nominal friends, but real enemies."

In 1844 the measures taken for the annexation of Texas evoked threats of a dissolution of the Union. The legislature of Massachusetts adopted a resolution declaring that "the commonwealth of Massachusetts, faithful to the compact between the people of the United States, according to the plain meaning and intent in which it was understood by them, is sincerely anxious for its preservation; but that it is

determined, as it doubts not the other States are, to submit to undelegated powers in no body of men on earth"; and that "the project of the annexation of Texas, unless arrested on the threshold, may tend to drive these States into a dissolution of the Union."

The examples cited are sufficient to show that secession was not a new idea in 1861, and that its assertion was not of Southern origin. Before leaving the subject, it may in general terms be stated that the doctrine of State rights is not that of a section, but is that of a minority, seeking the protection of State sovereignty from the real or supposed aggression of a usurping majority. In vain have we asked by what clause of the Constitution the States surrendered their sovereignty and, by consequence, a State lost its right to secede; and the nearest approach we have had to an answer has been the inquiry, Where is the right of a State to secede set forth in the Constitution? This marks either an evasion of the issue or extreme ignorance of the history of the Union. The States delegated all the rights and powers which the general government possesses, and they agreed with each other that no State should exercise certain functions which were intrusted to the federal government as their agent; therefore it seems not less than puerile to ask from what part of the Constitution the right or power of a State was derived. Every power, function, or right which the States did not agree to delegate to their common agent remained with them. No one of ordinary information and intelligence can deny that the States were sovereign, free, and independent when they entered into the compact of Union. If they had not been sovereigns, they would not have been competent to form that treaty; and as none have even attempted to show where or how their sovereignty was lost, it must be regarded as among the reserved powers of the States, and hence, still being sovereigns, they had the same *legal* power and right to secede from the Union which they had exercised in acceding to it.

The declared purpose of the Union was to promote the *general welfare*, and to secure to posterity the *blessings of liberty*, which the States had achieved by the sacrifices of the Revolution. The men who negotiated the compact for a "more perfect union" of the States were not visionaries or optimists, but profound students of the world's history, from which they had learned the tendency of free government to breed faction and of majorities to oppress minorities, resulting in the lamentable wreck of past federations and the loss of the liberty they were formed to secure. To guard against that danger, the representation of the States in the two Houses of Congress was to be apportioned so as to secure a balance of power—*i. e.*, so as to prevent either the North or the South from having a majority in both Houses. The plan failed; the North got a majority in both Houses, and history repeated itself. Under the power of Congress to levy duties on imports "to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States," duties were levied not merely for revenue, but avowedly to protect domestic manufactures from foreign competition. As the manufactories were mainly at the North and the exports from the South, this measure to increase the price of imports for the benefit of domestic manufacturers at the North was usurping an undelegated power, by sectional discrimination, in disregard of the obligation to establish justice and promote the general welfare. It was a twofold injustice to the South, by increasing the cost of its imports and diminishing the value of its exports in the markets of exchange. In this connection I will quote from Mr. Benton, a statesman of long experience and close observation, and not particularly friendly to the South. He says: "Under federal legislation the exports of the South have been the basis of the federal revenue." He names four Southern States as contributing three-fourths of the annual expense of the federal government, and adds:

> "Of this great sum annually furnished by them, nothing, or next to nothing, is returned to them in the shape of government expenditures. That expenditure flows in an opposite direction—it flows northwardly in one uniform, uninterrupted, and perennial stream. This is the reason why wealth disappears from the South and rises up from the North. Federal legislation does all this. . . . No tariff has ever yet included Virginia, the two Carolinas, and Georgia, except to increase the burdens imposed upon them."

It has, in modern times, been asserted

by some in high position, if not of high authority, that the will of the majority was the law of the land. Not so thought the men who formed the Constitution. They sought through every conceivable device to protect minorities from the despotism which majorities are ever prone to inflict, and I must insist that while each State retained its sovereignty it had a shield against the despotism of a majority in its power to withdraw to the precints of its own dominion; and this, if the majority were heedless of every appeal to justice and their compact, was the only remedy which seems to have been left. De Tocqueville, in his *Democracy in America*, vol. i, p. 301, writes:

"The majority in that country exercise a prodigious actual authority and a moral influence which is scarcely less preponderant; no obstacles exist which can impede or so much as retard its progress, or which induce it to heed the complaints of those whom it crushes upon its path."

Mr. Madison, in the Virginia convention of 1788, said:

"Turbulence, violence, and abuse of power by the majority trampling on the rights of the minority have produced factions and commotions which in republics have, more frequently than any other cause, produced despotism. If we go over the whole history of ancient and modern republics, we shall find their destruction to have generally resulted from these causes."

In 1861 all the plans proposed to restrain the majority had failed. The dangers which had been described as belonging to the condition we were in had to be met. The South, by her representatives in the two Houses of Congress, tried, by select committees, to find some possible means of giving security to the Southern States short of adopting the last resort —secession.

The committee of the Senate, organized in January, 1861, of which the writer of this article was a member, sought diligently to find some basis of adjustment on which a majority of the members representing the three political divisions of the Senate could agree. These divisions were known as the Radicals of the North, the Conservatives of the Middle States, and the Ultras of the South. The venerable Senator of Kentucky, Mr. Crittenden, had offered the resolutions which were referred to the committee. Mr. Douglas, Senator from Illinois, after the failure of the committee to agree upon anything, called the attention of the Senate to the fact that it was not the Southern members, naming particularly Toombs and Davis, who obstructed measures for pacification, but the Northern men, who had objected to everything, and on whom he then called for a statement of what they proposed to do, to which no answer was made. Exulting in the result of their recent election, feeling power and forgetting right, they yet dared not avow the evil purpose which they contemplated. One State had already withdrawn from the Union, and events in others were moving with accelerated velocity to the same conclusion; yet the men who were soon to be most vociferous in declarations of love for the Union were silent when words might have been effectual to save it. It had been but a few years since a hearing had been refused to abolitionist lecturers in New England; but now the eminent orator, Wendell Phillips, exulting in the terrible faction which was ruling in the North, said: "It does not know its own face and calls itself national; but it is not national—it is sectional. The Republican party is a party of the North, pledged against the South."

Mr. Seward, he of the irrepressible conflict, who was regarded as the power behind the throne of the incoming administration, was a member of the committee above referred to; but he sat in the Senate silent under the challenge of Mr. Douglas, and allowed the language of Mr. Phillips to go for what it was worth.

For the first time in the history of the country a sectional candidate for the Presidency had been elected. A majority of the Presidents had been Southern men, but none of them had been elected as such. They had always been nominated by a party coextensive with the Union, and voted for in all the States; but Mr. Lincoln had been put forth on purely sectional grounds and did not receive a single Southern vote. He had announced that the Union could not continue to exist half slave and half free. What then? Was the Union to be dissolved? Was slavery to be introduced into the Northern or to be abolished in

the Southern States? The declaration was an offence against the Constitution, and neither branch of the proposition could be executed without a palpable violation of it. Many of the States had passed what were called personal-liberty laws, in direct violation of the constitutional obligation to return fugitives held to service or labor under the laws of another State, which Mr. Webster in his great oration in Virginia said, if persisted in, would be destructive to the compact of Union.

The right of the South equally with the people of other sections to occupy, with every species of property known to any State, the common territory of the United States, was denied by the North, under the specious and wholly untenable plea that to take slaves to the Territories would be the extension of slavery. Though the argument was upon a false basis, it served the purpose of inflaming the Northern mind. At the South the proposition to forbid a citizen who should migrate to the common territory of the United States from taking his slave with him was considered an offensive and unjust denial of equality in the Union, and as such, but not because of any money interest in the question, an intense excitement was created by it.

The serious troubles in Kansas were followed by the double-dyed crime of John Brown's invasion of Virginia. He came fresh from the Kansas school, and was fulfilling Mr. Seward's prophecy that abolitionism would invade the South. Though the avowed purpose of the invasion was to disturb domestic tranquillity, which it was one of the proclaimed objects of the Union to secure, arson and murder were its accompaniments. When Brown was tried with due formality, sentenced, and executed according to the laws of the land, inasmuch as his crimes had been committed with open hostility to the South, he was canonized at the North and a hymn to his memory became the marching song of the declared enemies of the South. For some years the abolition faction had borne upon its banner "No union with slaveholders," though, as has been before stated, when the first Union was formed all of the States recognized slave property by their laws. It was common among demagogues in later times to excite prejudice against that species of property by describing it as a chattel, though it never was more than a life-long right to service and labor, and that, with the right of increase, was all which could be the subject of purchase and sale. Without further reciting violations of the compact which rendered it void, suffice it to say that seven of the States, deliberately acting in the highest form of procedure—*i. e.*, by convention of the people—did pass ordinances of secession just as they had formerly passed ordinances of accession by resolutions of ratification of the Constitution of the United States.

Now we have reached the point of inquiry as to what was the moral duty of a citizen of a seceding State in 1861.

It is not proposed to discuss any question arising out of subsequent events. It had, so far as I know, in all the earlier periods of our history been uniformly held that allegiance was primarily due to the State of which the individual was a citizen, and that allegiance to the United States resulted from the fact that the State to which each individual belonged was by compact a member of the Union.

When the Southern States had, in the recognized mode of expressing their sovereign will—that is, by convention of the people of the State—resumed the grants made by them as parties to the federal compact, they, following the precedent of 1787, formed a new union styled the Confederate States of America.

The wish of all, and the general expectation, was that the separation should be peaceable. For this purpose one of the first acts of the Confederate government was to send commissioners to the United States government to adjust all questions which would naturally arise in a dissolution of partnership. Our overtures were rejected, as I feared they would be, for the question was ever ringing in my ears, "If we let the South go, where will we get a revenue?" With continued assurance of peaceful intention the federal government made ready for war.

At the call of their States, the people of the South, with unexampled unanimity, volunteered to defend their hearths, their altars, and their inalienable rights. Gray-haired sires and beardless sons were in the same ranks; but preparation had not been

made to arm and equip them, and they had little more than their brave breasts to offer for defence against threatened invasion. Vainly had the South relied on the Constitution as a shield; it was crushed by the mailed hand of a factious majority—the evil which Mr. Madison, in the tenth number of *The Federalist*, described as that which had covered with opprobrium federation as a form of government.

I make no excusatory plea that the men "thought they were right" when, at the call of their sovereign State, they staked all save honor in defence of the rights their fathers left them. If they were not right, then patriotism is an empty name, and he who looks death in the face under its sacred inspiration may be a traitor. If it be treason for a citizen to defend the State under whose protection he lives, even against the federal government, the Constitution has placed him in the cruel dilemma of being, in the event of conflict between his State and the United States, necessarily compelled to commit treason against one or the other. This surely cannot be the condition to which our fathers reduced us when they entered into the compact of union. Allegiance is everywhere due to the sovereign only. That sovereign, under the American system, is the people—the people of the State to which the individual belongs; the people who constitute the State government which he obeys; the people who alone, as far as he is concerned, ordained and established the federal Constitution; the people who never delegated their sovereignty, and therefore retain the power to revoke all agencies created by them.

If the sovereign abolishes the State government and ordains and establishes a new one, the obligation of obedience requires the citizen to transfer his allegiance accordingly: there may be joint, but cannot be divided, allegiance; and this fact controlled the action of officers of the army and navy of the United States when continuance in the federal service came in conflict with the ultimate allegiance due from each to the sovereign State to which he belonged.

Staten Island, Expedition to. When Howe sailed southward (June, 1777) he left about 3,000 men, one-third of them loyalists, on Staten Island. Washington, who was watching Howe's movements, had placed Sullivan, with his division, near the coast in New Jersey. The British on the island continually plundered the Jerseymen on the main. Some of these plunderers, stationed nearly opposite Amboy, were attacked by Sullivan (Aug. 22) with about 1,000 men. He took several prisoners, and among the spoils were the records and papers of the Yearly Meeting of Friends, which revealed such defection in the cause of the patriots that the Congress advised the arrest of the members.

States, Admission to the Union. See United States.

States, League of. The United States, under the control of the Articles of Confederation, was simply a league of commonwealths, marked by tokens of an inherent tendency to dissolution. Its first attempt to exercise the functions of sovereignty was a signal failure, and the beginning of a series of failures. The executive powers of the General Congress were wholly dependent on the will and caprice of thirteen distinct legislatures, swayed by sectional interests and moved by sectional jealousies. The league failed, for the same reasons, to establish commercial relations with Great Britain and other governments. The inherent weakness of the new government was palpable to every attentive observer. It was perceived that the inchoate republic was not a *nation*. In a well-written pamphlet, Lord Sheffield declared his belief that the ruin of the league would be speedy, because anarchy and confusion would follow as a consequence of the independence of the States. He advised against sending a diplomatic representative of Great Britain to the American seat of government. He said, "If the American States choose to send consuls, receive them, and send a consul to each State, and this is the whole that is necessary." He regarded the league, composed, as was claimed, of petty sovereignties, as unworthy of the dignified title of nation, and predicted that they would soon become penitent suppliants at the feet of the King for pardon and restoration as colonies. Such was the tendency when the proposition for a convention to amend the Articles of Confederation was called. The adoption

of the national Constitution averted the catastrophe.

States, Origin of the Names of. Alabama (Indian), "Here we rest." Arkansas (Indian), the same as Kansas, "smoky water," with the prefix of the French *ar*, or bow for arrows. California, a name given by Cortez in 1535 to the peninsula of Lower California. He probably derived it from *Esplanadian*, a Spanish romance published in 1510, in which the name is given to an imaginary island "on the right hand of the Indies, very near to the terrestrial paradise," abounding in great treasures of gold. Colorado (Spanish), "red," or "colored." Connecticut, from the Indian word *Quahna-ta-cut*, "country upon the long river." Delaware, in honor of Thomas West, Lord de la Warr, or Delaware, first governor of the Virginia colony. Florida, so named by Ponce de Leon because of the abundance of flowers there, or because of the day on which he discovered it—Easter or Palm Sunday (*Pascua Florida*), 1512. Georgia, in honor of George II. of England, in whose reign it was settled. Illinois, from the Indian word *illini*, "men," and the French suffix *ois*, "tribe of men." Indiana, from the word "Indian." Iowa, the French rendering of an Indian word signifying "the drowsy," or "the sleepy ones." Kansas (Indian), "smoky water." It is also said to signify "good potato." Kentucky (Indian), *Kain-tuck-ee*, "at the head of a river." Louisiana, so named by La Salle after King Louis XIV. of France. Maine, in compliment to the Queen of Charles I., who owned the province of Mayne, in France. Maryland, named in honor of Henrietta Maria, Queen of Charles I., who called the province *Terra Mariæ*, "Mary's Land." Massachusetts (Indian), "about the great hills." Michigan (Indian), *mit-chi*, "great," and *sawgye-gan*, a Chippewa word for "liken." Minnesota (Indian), "whitish water." Mississippi (Indian), "great, long river." Missouri (Indian), "muddy river." Nebraska (Indian), "water valley," or "shallow river." Nevada, a Spanish word. New Hampshire, so named by George Mason after Hampshire, a county in England. New Jersey, so called in honor of Sir George Carteret, one of its proprietors, who had been governor of the island of Jersey. New York, so named in compliment to the Duke of York. Carolina, North and South, so named in compliment to Charles II. Dakota, North and South, named from the Dakota Indians. Ohio (Indian), *O-hee-yuh*, "beautiful river." The French spell it *O-y-o*. Oklahoma (Choctaw Indian), "home of the red men." Oregon, from *orégano* (Spanish), the wild marjoram. Pennsylvania, "Penn's woods," so named in honor of Admiral Penn, to whose son William it was granted by Charles II. Rhode Island, a corruption of *Roode Islandt*, "Red Island," so named by the Dutch traders because of the abundance of cranberries. Tennessee (Indian), "river of the big bend." Texas, from an Aztec word signifying "north country." Utah, from Ute Indians. Vermont (French), *verd mont*, "green mountain," from the green mountain ranges that traverse it. Virginia, so named in compliment to Elizabeth, the unmarried Queen of England. West Virginia, formed from the western portion of old Virginia. Wisconsin, or Ouisconsin, an Indian word meaning "a wild, rushing river." Wyoming (Indian), "upon the great plain." See State Flowers and Nicknames.

States, Right of Secession of. In 1810 a proposition was made to erect the Orleans Territory into a State. It was warmly opposed, especially by the Federalists of New England. Early in 1811 a bill for that purpose was introduced into Congress, when Josiah Quincy, of Massachusetts, in a speech of much power, expressed his deliberate opinion that such a measure would be a flagrant disregard of the Constitution, and would be a virtual dissolution of the bonds of the Union, freeing the States composing it from their moral obligation of adhesion to each other, and making it the right of all, as it would become the duty of some, to prepare definitely for separation—"amicably if they might, forcibly if they must!" This declaration, the first announcement on the floor of Congress of the doctrine of secession, produced a call to order from a delegate from Mississippi (Poindexter), who said no member of the House ought to be allowed to stimulate any portion of the people to insurrection and a dissolution of the Union. The speaker (Varnum) decided that the suggestion of the right

to dissolve the Union was out of order. The decision was reversed. Jealousy of the new States to be formed in the West, and the results of the census for 1810, which threatened the curtailment of the political weight of New England, was a powerful stimulant to the opposition to the erection of a new State on the Mississippi.

States, The, and the Popular Vote in Presidential Elections.—Mr. John Handiboe, a member of the staff of a leading Philadelphia journal, which he joined after a long and brilliant editorial career in the capital of Pennsylvania, the exigencies of whose work have rendered it necessary for him to make a special study of certain provisions and regulations of the Constitution, as illustrated by the result of their operation in connection with practical affairs, writes as follows:

One of the most interesting problems which have confronted the American political student during the past twenty years is: Shall the President of the United States be elected by direct popular vote? Custom and tradition, the arch enemies of reform, oppose the innovation, and deceive the public mind with the error-preserving assertion that "what was good enough for our fathers is good enough for us." Few things that were good enough for our fathers are now worthy to remain in actual use; for, as evolution, like revolution, never goes backward, few things capable of improvement have remained unimproved. With everything else of practical utility bettered, with everything which time and usage have shown to be unsuited to present conditions and needs satisfactorily adjusted to them, it must be that the political and governmental regulations which arose out of the necessity of the past will be remedied in so far as they fail to meet in the best way the exigencies of to-day. There must be improvement in political relations, as well as scientific or mechanical affairs, or men cannot derive from the general advancement all the benefit they have a right to expect.

It is the purpose of this article to show that, though there has been improvement, in the past century, in the method of selecting Presidential nominees and in electing candidates, the improvement stopped short of its logical goal; and to illustrate the inequalities and crudities of the law as it has come down to us.

The men who framed the Constitution, while wise in many things pertaining to government and political relations, knew nothing about the election of a President, and were at a loss to determine how that should be done. It was at first suggested that an executive of three men should be established, one from the East, one from the Middle States, and one from the South, as it was feared a single executive could not care properly for the interests of a section of the country to which he was a stranger. After considerable debate, a single executive was decided upon; and then came the question of how he was to be elected. It was agreed that he should not be elected by popular choice, because, the Constitution-makers believed, the country was "too large," and the people were "too ignorant" to be intrusted with such an important business; and it was feared that with the growth of the country a time would come when there would be no man of reputation sufficiently national to make him a desirable nominee, so that the people would be unable to agree upon any man for the office. It was decided that Congress should elect the President, who should serve for seven years and be ineligible for re-election. This plan, however, was not well received by the leading spirits of the country, because Congress had the power both of election and impeachment, and it was feared the President would become its creature. The arguments against the plan had weight with the makers of the Constitution. They, therefore, rescinded that method and substituted another, which fixed the Presidential term at four years and made the executive eligible to re-election. But the idea of popular elections was still repugnant; and, to prevent these, and still keep Presidential elections out of the control of Congress, in obedience to public demand, the idea of choice by electors was evolved and adopted.

The States were empowered to appoint electors, as the legislature of each State should direct; and the legislatures of the several States, therefore, appointed

electors. These electors were clothed with sole power to select a fit man for Presidential candidate and to vote for him, the electors of each State voting independently, without regard to the candidates or the vote of the electors of other States. The electors of all the States voted on the same day, however, each electoral body in its own State, the design in this being to prevent the electors of all States coming together under practically the same influences that now control national conventions. Each elector was master of his own actions in the choice of the Presidential candidate, and thus was relieved from the control of Congress or of political parties. This was the law of Presidential selection and election as first definitely adopted.

But, while this law was intended to be definite, it could not be permanent. It did not give satisfaction long, the election of 1796 proving that it was possible to elect the President from one party and the Vice-President from another; and, as a consequence, though the fathers intended that no electoral vote should be pledged, and that the electors alone should select a President, in 1800 the Republican members of Congress held a caucus for the nomination of Presidential candidates to be voted for by all Republican electors. Jefferson and Burr being chosen, every Republican elector voted for these candidates. The electors were thus deprived of the power with which they had been originally clothed, and they have never recovered it. This was the first change towards popular control of Presidential elections and the conversion of State electoral boards into mere representatives of State pluralities.

The next change in the original plan of elections was made in 1804, when the electors were empowered to cast two ballots, one for President and one for Vice-President. Prior to this time, one ballot, containing the names of two candidates, had been cast, the candidate receiving the greater number of votes being declared President and the other Vice-President. In this year, also, the congressional caucus became a fixture; and, until 1824, all Presidential candidates were nominated by such caucus. In 1824, the people obtaining full control of State and local government, the State legislatures and State conventions began to make nominations, depriving the congressional caucus of its power. At this time, also, the people began to select electors by ballot. The new method of nominating did not give entire satisfaction, and the meeting of protectionists in Harrisburg, in 1827, and of anti-masons in Baltimore, in 1831, paved the way to the popular national convention with such success that, in 1832, the Democrats and National Republicans adopted the national caucus for the nomination of candidates. The caucus, however, was a crude instrument and fell into disuse. In 1840, the national convention, nearly as we now know it, was created, and all Presidents elected since that time have been nominated by national conventions of the nominating parties.

We have seen, therefore, these successive methods of the selection and election of Presidential candidates—the untrammelled selection and election of candidates by the separate boards or "colleges" of electors, appointed by State legislatures, acting independently, each elector voting for two candidates for President; the selection of candidates by congressional caucus and election by appointed electors; balloting separately for President and Vice-President; selection of electors by popular vote; nomination of candidates by State conventions and legislatures; nomination by national caucus; nomination by national convention. Thus, the whole intention of the framers of the Constitution has been swept away, with the sole purpose of giving the people fuller control of Presidential elections. There is no sanctity of tradition nor reverence of custom binding the people of to-day to the error of a century; especially since the people of former years corrected the error according to their lights, but corrected it only in part. Each change in the law as originally enforced fortifies the people of to-day in the earnest endeavor to make Presidential elections really popular, and tends to remove the feeling of many good citizens that to change this particular law would be almost treason. The evolution towards a really popular government has stopped at its most important stage.

It is worth while to consider some of the inequalities and crudities of the present law. Bishop Merrill has pointed out one of the greatest of these. This is, in substance, that the individual inhabitant of a State having thirty-six electors exercises, in the choice of a President, twelve times the power of the individual voter residing in a State having only three electors. In the one State each voter casts a ballot for thirty-six electors; and, if his one vote decide the election, he will have won for his party twelve times as many electors as the individual voter deciding the election in the other State could possibly win for his party. The illustration applies with the same force to 100 voters, or to 1,000, as to one. Indeed, the bishop could have gone further, and said that 100 voters in New York could overthrow the electoral votes of ten States, without regard to the popular pluralities of those States. In fact, in 1884, 600 votes taken from the Democratic candidate and given to the Republican would have put New York in the Republican column. It may, then, be said that 600 voters in New York gave that State to Cleveland. These 600 votes outbalanced the electoral votes of eight States, with pluralities aggregating 110,000, and an electoral vote of thirty-three. These States were: Colorado, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, Oregon, Rhode Island, Vermont. The fact is thus demonstrated that, in each State, the individual voter's elective power is augmented or curtailed by a law which does not recognize the individual as a potential factor in a national election.

To remedy this inequality, the bishop suggests that Presidential electors be voted for separately by congressional districts, instead of by a State ballot; each elector being chosen by the congressional district in which he resides, irrespective of the candidacy or the political fortunes of other electors in his State. On the surface this seems to promise the needed corrective; but in fact it falls short of the necessities. It would, it is true, give each congressional district an elector of its political suasion, and elect a President of the same political faith as the lower House of the Congress going into office with him. But, although this would be a real and appreciable step in the direction of a reform the need of which the framers of the Constitution could not have foreseen, it does not go far enough. It promises to remove inequalities and leave the citizen untrammelled in the selection of a President, making one man's vote as valuable and as determinative as the vote of any other man anywhere. But this work it cannot perform, for it cannot reach and destroy the gerrymander. In nearly, if not quite, every State in which the dominant political party has had the opportunity, the congressional districts have been so arranged and manipulated that a small plurality of the State vote may be made to yield a large majority of Congressmen. The gerrymander is, in this way, a pattern and an annoying imitation of the electoral system. Bishop Merrill's plan, were it adopted, would be manifestly unable to change this, and, therefore, unable to remove inequalities or correct crudities in Presidential elections.

A study of the figures of Presidential elections shows that the successful candidate gets an electoral vote for a smaller number of popular votes than his defeated opponent; and that, in his majorities, the successful nominee gets an electoral vote for a ridiculously small number of popular ballots. It has been declared with more or less vehemence, but with a great deal of sophistry, that "what is good for one is good for another" in the choosing of electoral boards. The truth is that what is bad for one is bad for the whole country, in that what can be improved and is not may often become the instrument of defeating the will of the people, and in a popular government it is difficult to conceive of a more sinister occurrence. The table on following page will illustrate how the electoral system sets the popular will at defiance and has defeated it.

The table begins with the vote of 1828, because there were no real elections by the people until 1824; and, as no candidate had a popular majority in that year, the House of Representatives elected the President. In 1836 four Whigs ran against Van Buren, who won; the vote of the Whig party being thus dissipated, the election of that year is not included in

STATES, THE, AND VOTE IN PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS

POPULAR AND ELECTORAL VOTES.

Candidates.	Popular Vote.	Electoral Vote.	Ratio of Electoral to Popular Vote. 1 to —	Popular Plurality.	Electoral Majority.	Ratio of Electoral Majority to Popular Plurality. 1 to —
1828						
Jackson	647,231	178	3,636	138,134	95	1,454
Adams	509,097	83	6,134	....	...	....
1832						
Jackson	687,502	219	3,139	157,313	170	925
Clay	530,189	49	10,820	....	...	....
1840						
Harrison	1,275,017	234	5,449	146,315	174	841
Van Buren	1,128,702	60	18,811	....	...	....
1844						
Polk	1,337,243	170	7,866	38,175	65	587
Clay	1,299,068	105	12,372	....	...	....
1848						
Taylor	1,360,101	163	8,344	139,557	36	3,876
Cass	1,220,544	127	9,610	....	...	....
1852						
Pierce	1,601,474	254	6,305	220,896	211	1,047
Scott	1,380,576	43	32,106	....	...	....
1856						
Buchanan	1,838,169	174	10,564	496,905	60	8,281
Frémont	1,341,264	114	11,765	....	...	....
1860						
Lincoln	1,866,352	180	10,368	491,195	168	2,924
Douglas	1,375,157	12	114,596	....	...	....
Breckinridge	845,736	72	11,746	....	...	....
Bell	589,581	39	15,117	....	...	....
1864						
Lincoln	2,216,067	212	10,453	407,342	191	2,138
McClellan	1,808,725	21	86,129	....	...	....
1868						
Grant	3,015,071	214	23,435	305,456	134	2,279
Seymour	2,709,615	80	33,870	....	...	....
1872						
Grant	3,597,070	286	12,577	762,991	223	3,421
Greeley	2,834,079	63	44,985	....	...	....
1880						
Garfield	4,449,053	214	20,790	7,018	59	119
Hancock	4,442,035	155	28,658	....	...	....
1884						
Cleveland	4,911,017	219	22,425	62,683	37	1,694
Blaine	4,848,334	182	26,639	....	...	....
1888						
Harrison	5,440,216	233	23,348	....	65	....
Cleveland	5,538,233	168	32,965	....	...	....
1892						
Cleveland	5,556,918	277	20,061	380,810	132	2,885
Harrison	5,176,108	145	35,697	....	...	....
1896						
McKinley	7,101,401	271	26,204	630,745	95	6,639
Bryan	6,470,656	176	36,765	....	...	....
1900						
McKinley	7,208,244	292	24,686	849,455	137	6,200
Bryan	6,358,789	155	36,764	....	...	....
1904						
Roosevelt	7,624,489	336	22,870	2,541,735	196	12,970
Parker	5,082,754	140	36,162	....	...	....
1908						
Taft	7,678,908	321		1,269,804	159	7,986
Bryan	6,409,104	162		....	...	....
1912						
Wilson	6,286,214	435	14,451	2,160,194	339	6,372
Taft	3,483,922	8	435,490	....	...	....
Roosevelt	4,126,020	88	48,023	....	...	....

the table. In 1860 Lincoln's closest competitor was Douglas; and Lincoln's popular and electoral votes are therefore compared with his. Lincoln had a minority of 944,122 in the popular vote, and yet received fifty-seven more electoral votes than all his opponents. The figures for 1876 are omitted because, owing to the manner in which the election of that year was decided, they can be of no value.

The case of Douglas, as illustrating the failure of the "electoral college" system to give a method of electing the chief executive which can be depended upon to be fair and equitable at all times, is an extreme one. But the significance of

the result that year was unheeded; and, as a consequence, it was found possible, in 1876, by slight changes in the popular vote, to give an electoral majority to a candidate who even then was without a popular plurality. This was followed by the total collapse of the popular will and electoral "college" theory in 1888, when Cleveland, with a popular plurality of 98,017, was defeated by an electoral majority of sixty-five. To sum it up: In every election the winning candidate receives more electors in proportion to his popular vote than the unsuccessful candidate; in every case the proportion of popular votes necessary to win his excess of electoral votes is very small, and in every case the popular will, as represented by the popular vote, is enfeebled or wholly repudiated by the electoral choice. Here are the greatest inequalities of the present system, emphasizing its incompatibility with popular election of Presidents. For instance, how is it possible to harmonize the theory of equitable election laws, and the older theory of equal representation, with the fact that, in the contest of 1852, Pierce received one electoral vote for every 6,305 of popular votes, while for every 32,106 popular votes Scott got only one electoral vote? Or what more aptly illustrates the absurdity of the present system than the election of 1860, when Lincoln received one electoral vote for each 10,368 popular votes, and Douglas got only one elector for every 114,596 votes?

It is apparent that the people are inclined to diminish the power of electors, as shown in alterations in the conduct of elections; that the tendency of these alterations is towards a fuller exercise of individual rights by the people; that the present system, denuded though it be of some of its objectionable original garb, is still unsatisfactory; that it does not give the people the full enjoyment of suffrage which of right is theirs; that candidates as well as people are not equally represented in the electoral college, or are, because of the unfairness of the law, deprived of what, under a fair law, would be a victory. For such evils a remedy can be found only in an amendment of the Constitution which will do away with the electoral "college" and substitute for it a definite election by popular ballot. In no other way can there really be a government of the people, by the people, for the people. The popular ballot, untrammelled and unperverted by present constitutional restrictions, will insure the election of the candidate receiving the highest number of votes. It will remove all the inequalities now complained of, but endured apathetically, and make the vote of the citizen of one State as potent as that of the citizen of another. It will make the most ingenious gerrymander powerless to affect the result. It will put the citizens of the small State on exactly the same footing as the citizens of the large State, without detriment to the interests of either. It will make the repetition of the returning-board episode unnecessary and impossible, and will prevent the election of a President by Congress, thus doubly assuring popular choice. It will check corruption, discourage vote-buying, the concentration of vast sums of money for use in carrying certain desired States, put an end to colonizing for the same purpose, and to a great extent weaken, if not destroy, the vast system of blackmail now conducted under the name of campaign fund. With a direct popular vote for President we shall have a real "government by the people."

States and the Union. See UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

States-General of Holland, one of the five chief powers of the government of the Netherlands, established after the declaration of their national independence. These powers were the States-General, the Council of State, the Chamber of Accounts, the Stadtholder, and the College of the Admiralty. The States-General usually sat at The Hague. It was not in any true sense a representative body, but rather a deputation. It had no claim to sovereignty. It obeyed the instructions of its constituents to the letter. When new subjects were introduced for consideration, the States-General applied to the provinces for direction. Neither war nor peace could be made without unanimous consent of the provinces, nor troops raised without the same unanimity. The States-General constituted a congress of the same general character of that of the United States under the Articles of Confederation.

Statutes of Limitations. See INTEREST LAWS.

Steadman, FORT, a National defensive work in front of the 9th Corps, forming a salient, not more than 100 yards from the Confederate intrenchments at Petersburg, Va. Lee assigned to the duty of assaulting the fort the two divisions of Gordon's command, with the larger portion of Bushrod R. Johnston's command in support. Behind these he massed about 20,000 men to break through the National line if the attack should prove successful. They were supplied with provisions and ammunition for a long struggle. The assault began at 4 A.M. (March 25, 1865). The garrison, composed of the 14th New York Artillery, had no suspicion of danger near. The surprise was so complete that the assailants met with no resistance. A part of the garrison fled; the remainder were made prisoners. A brigade of the 9th Corps met the same fate, and abandoned their guns. Now was the moment when Lee's army might have passed through the National line. It did not, and the golden moment was lost forever. The Confederates attacked Fort Haskell, near by, but were repulsed. Confederate columns pressing through the gap were assailed by a murderous fire of artillery; and an assault by General Hartranft's division of the 9th Corps, with an enfilading fire of artillery, caused the surrender of 1,900 men. Fort Steadman was recovered, and at the same time a strongly intrenched picket-line of the Confederates was seized and permanently held. See PETERSBURG, OPERATIONS AGAINST.

Steam Navigation. The value of steam in navigation was demonstrated by Denys Papin in a model steamboat on the Fulda, near Cassel, in 1707. This was soon destroyed by a mob of boatmen. Jonathan Hulls, of London, England, set forth the idea in a patent obtained in 1736. Bernouilli experimented with a steamboat, using artificial fins, and Genevois with one using the duck's-foot propeller, in 1757. In 1775 M. Perier navigated the Seine with a small steamboat, and in 1783 Claude, Comte de Jouffroy, constructed an engine which propelled a boat on the Saône. Immediately after the close of the Revolutionary War, James Rumsey, of Maryland, propelled a vessel by steam on the Potomac River, a fact certified to by Washington. In 1785 an association was formed to aid him, which was called the Rumsey Society, of which Benjamin Franklin was president. Nothing came of it. The next year John Fitch, a native of Connecticut, exhibited a boat on the Delaware propelled by steam; and in 1788 he applied to the Continental Congress for a patent, saying his boat could be propelled 8 miles an hour by the vapor. A stock company was formed at Philadelphia, and built a steam packet-boat, which ran until the company failed in 1790. Fitch's efforts in steam navigation also failed. John C. Stevens, of Hoboken, N. J., constructed a steamboat on the waters of the Hudson that was driven by a Watt engine, moved by vapor from a tubular boiler of his own invention, and a screw propellor. The same year Oliver Evans put a steam dredging-machine on the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers propelled by a steam paddle-wheel moved by a high-pressure engine, the first of its kind ever used. Meanwhile Robert

FITCH'S STEAMBOAT.

FULTON'S CLERMONT ON ITS TRIAL-TRIP UP THE HUDSON.

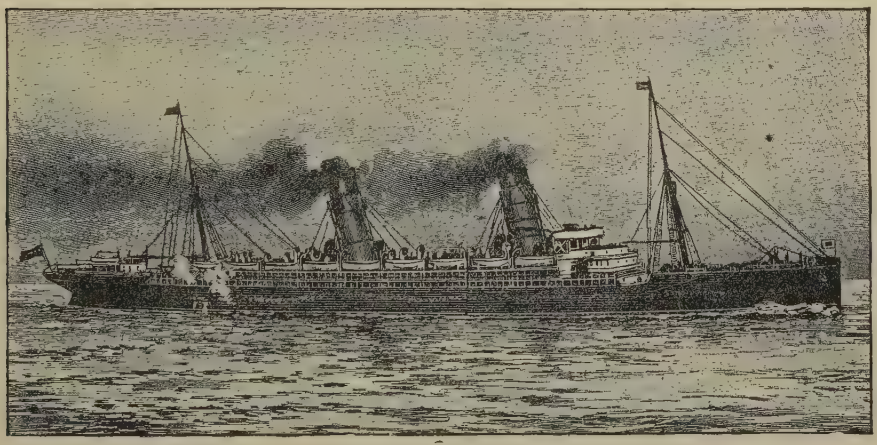
Fulton, a professional painter, had conceived a plan for steamboat navigation while an inmate of Joel Barlow's residence in Paris. He met Chancellor Livingston in Paris, and interested that gentleman in his projects. He tried two experiments on the Seine in 1803. Fulton visited Scotland, where a steamboat was in operation, and received from the inventor a description of its construction. With these facts in his possession, Fulton planned, and, on his return to New York in 1806, built, in conjunction with Livingston, a steamboat, which he called the *Clermont*, the title of the latter's country seat on the manor. The vessel was 130 feet in length, 18 in width, and 7 in depth, and was of 160 tons burden. She was propelled by a Watt & Boulton engine.

Fulton was generally regarded as an unwise enthusiast, and when, on the morning of Friday, Aug. 7, 1807, the *Clermont* left New York on a trial-trip to Albany, bearing Fulton and a few friends who had faith in his enterprise, and the boat stopped a while on account of a slight imperfection, he was greeted by jeers from a crowd on shore. But she soon moved on out of sight of the deriding multitude, and made her way to Albany and back against wind and tide, frightening many along the shores of the river, who regarded it, as it cast forth sparks, flame, and smoke during the night, a monster of the deep. The great experiment then became a demonstration, and navigation by steam was then first successfully undertaken. From that day vast improvements have been made in steam navigation, until now steam-vessels are seen in all parts of the world, even among the ice-packs of the polar seas. The *Clermont* began regular trips between New York and Albany on Sept. 1, 1807, making the round trip of about 300 miles in 72 hours. On that day the following advertisement appeared in the New York newspapers: "The North River steamboat will leave Paulus's Hook (Jersey City) on Friday, the 4th of September, at nine o'clock in the morning, and arrive at Albany on Saturday at nine o'clock in the afternoon. Provisions, good berths, and accommodations are provided."

Before the breaking out of the War of 1812–15 Fulton and Livingston had caused six steamboats to be built for navigating the Hudson and for ferrying at New York. Steam navigation was soon in operation on the rivers and lakes of the United States and quite early on the sea. In

1808 Robert L. Stevens (the son of John) went in the *Phœnix*, then lately launched at Hoboken, around to the Delaware River; and in July, 1819, the steamship *Savannah* crossed the Atlantic Ocean from Savannah to Liverpool in twenty-six days. Six years later the steamship *Enterprise* went from Falmouth, England, to the East Indies, the first voyage of the kind ever made. For this achievement her commander (Captain Johnson) received $50,000. These were extraordinary voyages at that time.

The beginning of the regular navigation of the ocean between Europe and America was postponed until June, 1838, when the *Great Western* crossed the Atlantic from Bristol to New York in eighteen days. From that time steam navigation between the continents has been regularly kept up, and the Atlantic is now traversed by steam-vessels from New York to Liverpool in about five and a half days. Steamships are seen on every sea. They are employed in Arctic explorations; and in the early part of 1879 a steamship made the first voyage from the waters of the Atlantic to those of the Pacific through the ocean lying at the north of Europe and Asia. The first American steam-vessel seen in the East India seas was the schooner *Midas*, in 1844. See Hudson-Fulton Celebration; Navigation Acts; Navy; Ship-Building.



A MODERN OCEAN STEAMER.

Chronology.—The following is a record of the chief events in the history of commercial steam navigation. See Navigation Acts; Navy.

James Rumsey, of Sheppardstown, Va., invents a steamboat propelled by a steam-engine expelling water through a horizontal trunk-opening in the stern (1782). He experiments publicly in the presence of General Washington, on the Potomac River. Sept., 1784

John Fitch, of Philadelphia, Pa., launches a steamboat worked by vertical paddles, six on each side, on the Delaware River 1788

Patrick Miller, of Dalswinton, Scotland, constructs a pleasure boat with paddle-wheels (1787), to which William Symington applies a steam-engine 1788

John Fitch sails a steamboat 18 feet long on the Collect Pond, New York City, where the "Tombs" now stands 1796

First practical steamboat, the tug *Charlotte Dundas*, built by William Symington, and tried on the Forth and Clyde Canal, Scotland....March, 1802

Robert Fulton, in connection with Chancellor Livingston, United States ambassador in Paris, builds a steam paddle-boat, 60 feet long, which is tried on the Seine.....Aug. 9, 1803

John Stevens, of Hoboken, N. J., builds a steamboat with twin-screw propellers and an engine supplied by a flue-boiler 1804

Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, 160 tons, runs from New York to Albany in thirty-two hours, thus securing the

exclusive use of the Hudson for steam navigation under grant of legislature made in 1798.....Aug., 1807

Phoenix, a single-screw propeller built by John Stevens, makes the first sea voyage of a steam-vessel from New York to Philadelphia..... 1808

First steamboat on the St. Lawrence River, the *Accommodation,* runs from Montreal to Quebec..... 1809

First steamboat on the western rivers, a stern-wheeler, is built by Fulton at Pittsburg..... 1811

Comet, first passenger steamboat built in Europe, by Henry Bell, runs on the Clyde 7½ miles per hour.Jan. 18, 1812

Steam ferry between New York and Jersey City..... 1812

First steam-vessel on the Thames, brought by Mr. Dodd from Glasgow.. 1815

First steamboat on the Great Lakes, the *Ontario,* built at Sackett's Harbor, N. Y..... 1816

Walk-in-the-Water, a steamboat for Lake Erie, launched at Black Rock (now part of Buffalo, N. Y.)..May 28, 1818

Savannah, Capt. Stevens Rogers, a steamboat of 350 tons, built in New York City, crosses the Atlantic from Savannah to Liverpool in twenty-six days, during eighteen of which she uses her paddles. Off Cape Clear she is mistaken for a ship on fire, and pursued by the British cutter *Kite.* She sails from Savannah, Ga.. May 24, 1819

First sea-going steam-vessel of iron, the *Aaron Manby,* is constructed at the Horsley Iron Works, England.... 1821

First steam voyage to India made by the *Enterprise,* Captain Johnson, from London to Calcutta in 113 days, leaving Falmouth.....Aug. 16, 1825

Fulton the First accidentally blown up at New York.....June 4, 1829

Steamboat *Royal William* crosses the ocean from Quebec..... 1831

John Randolph, first iron vessel in American waters, built by John Laird, of Birkenhead, and shipped in pieces at Liverpool, built in the Savannah River as a tugboat..... 1834

Great Western Steamship Company formed, and keel of the *Great Western* (1,340 tons) laid at Bristol, England..... 1836

Peninsular Steamship Company founded..... 1837

Captain Ericsson's screw steamer, *Francis B. Ogden,* makes 10 miles per hour on the Thames.....April, 1837

First voyage of the steamship *Great Western,* launched July 19, 1837, from Bristol to New York..April 8-23, 1838

Sirius, built at London, crosses the Atlantic in 18½ days, reaching New York under steam a few hours before the *Great Western*....April 23, 1838

Thomas Petit Smith's propeller first tried in England on a large scale in the *Archimedes* of 237 tons..... 1839

Unicorn, first steam-vessel from Europe to enter Boston Harbor, arrives.... June 2, 1840

First of the Cunard line, the *Britannia,* side-wheeler, crosses to Boston in 14 days 8 hours, leaving Liverpool. July 4, 1840

Pacific Steam Navigation Company established..... 1840

Screw steamer *Princeton* built for the United States navy..... 1843

Screw steamer *Great Britain,* first large ship with iron hull, designed by I. K. Brunel (3,443 tons, 322 feet long, 51 feet broad), launched July 19, 1843, sails from Bristol.....Jan. 23, 1845

Pacific Mail Steamship Company organized..... 1847

Collins line of American steamships formed and subsidized by the United States government..... 1849

(It consisted of the *Arctic, Baltic, Atlantic,* and *Pacific,* and existed eight years. The barber-shops on shipboard were a new feature.)

Inman line founded by William Inman, and the first vessel, an iron screw steamer, *City of Glasgow,* put in commission..... 1850

Emigrants first carried in steamships of the Inman line..... 1850

Allan line organized..... 1853

First trip around the world by a merchant steamer, the English screw steamship *Argo*..... 1854

Hamburg-American and Anchor lines established..... 1856

Great Western broken up for firewood at Vauxhall..... 1857

North German Lloyd line established.. 1857

Great Eastern launched, Nov. 3, 1857-Jan. 31, 1858

Iron-clad steamships introduced..... 1860

French line established..... 1862

Far East, with two screw-propellers, launched at Millwall.....Oct. 31, 1863

Guion line established..... 1864

Trial trip of the *Nautilus,* with a hydraulic propeller (Ruthven's patent, 1849) worked by steam and no paddles or screw.....March 24, 1866

White Star line begins with the *Oceanic,* with saloons and state-rooms amidships instead of in the stern..... 1870

Netherlands line established, 1872; Red Star line..... 1873

Steamship *Faraday,* 5,000 tons, 360 feet long, 52 feet wide, and 36 feet deep, launched at Newcastle.....Feb. 17, 1874

First export of live cattle by steamer, 373 head, shipped from United States to England in the steamship *European*.....July, 1874

Dead-meat trade between United States and England by refrigeration commences on White Star liners *Celtic* and *Britannic*..... 1874

Bessemer saloon steamer launched at Hull, Sept. 24, 1874, makes first voyage to Gravesend.....March 5, 1875

Thingvalla line established..... 1879

STEAM NAVIGATION

Anthracite, a steamer 84 feet long, crosses the Atlantic, 3,316 miles, in 22½ days, consuming only 25 tons of coal 1880

"Whaleback" *Charles W. Wetmore* steams from the head of Lake Superior to Liverpool 1891

Campania, Cunard line, with a gross tonnage of 18,500 tons, 620 feet long, 65 feet 3 inches broad, and 43 feet deep 1892

Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse, North German Lloyd, 649 feet long, 66 feet wide, 43 feet deep, 20,800 tonnage, 28,000 horse-power..... 1897

Oceanic, white Star line, 685 feet long, 68 feet wide, 44 feet deep, 31,590 tonnage, launched at Belfast Jan. 14, 1899

Deutschland, Hamburg-American line, 687 feet long, 67 feet wide, 44 feet deep, 37,500 tonnage, 37,800 H. P... 1900

Celtic, White Star line, 700 feet long, 75 feet broad, 49 feet deep, 20,900 tonnage 1901

Amerika, Hamburg-American line, 668 feet long, 74 feet wide, 52 feet deep, 23,500 tonnage 1905

Kaiserin Auguste Victoria, Hamburg-American line, 700 feet long, 77 feet wide, 54 feet deep, 24,581 tonnage.. 1906

Mauretania and *Lusitania,* Cunard line, 790 feet long, 88 feet wide, 60½ feet deep, 32,000 tonnage, burns about 1,000 tons of coal a day.... 1907

Rotterdam, Holland-American line, 668 feet long, 77 feet wide, 57 feet deep, 24,170 tonnage 1908

George Washington, North German Lloyd, 723 feet long, 78 feet wide, 54 feet deep, 27,000 tonnage, built at Stettin 1909

Olympic, White Star line, 882½ feet long, 92 feet wide, 94 feet deep, 45,324 tonnage, built at Belfast... 1910

Titanic, White Star line, 882½ feet long, 92 feet wide, 94 feet deep, 45,000 tonnage. Wrecked on her first voyage 1912

France, French line, 708 feet long, 78 feet wide, 54 feet deep, 40,000 tonnage 1912

Imperator, Hamburg-American line, 900 feet long, 96 feet wide, 70,000 tonnage, building at Hamburg 1912

FASTEST ATLANTIC OCEAN PASSAGES.

Route.	*Steamer.*	*Line.*	*Date.*	*D.*	*H.*	*M.*
Queenstown to New York..	Mauretania.....	Cunard.....	Sept. 11–15, 1910.....	4	10	41
Queenstown to New York..	Lucania.....	Cunard.....	Oct. 21–26, 1894.....	5	7	23
New York to Queenstown..	Mauretania.....	Cunard.....	Sept. 15–20, 1909.....	4	13	41
New York to Queenstown..	Lucania.....	Cunard.....	Sept. 8–14, 1894.....	5	8	38
Cherbourg to New York...	Kronprinz Cecilie....	No. Germ. Lloyd..	Aug. 19–25, 1908.....	5	11	9
Southampton to New York.	Kaiser Wilh. d. Gr'se.	No. Germ. Lloyd..	Mar. 30–April. 5, 1898.	5	20	..
New York to Southampton.	Kaiser Wilh. d. Gr'se.	No. Germ. Lloyd..	Nov. 23–29, 1897.....	5	17	8
Havre to New York.....	La Provence.....	French.....	Sept. 7–13, 1907.....	6	1	48
New York to Havre.....	La Provence.....	French.....	May 3–9, 1906.....	6	3	45
New York to Cherbourg...	Kaiser Wilh. d. Gr'se.	No. Germ. Lloyd..	Jan. 4–10, 1900.....	5	16	..
New York to Plymouth....	Kronprinz Cecilie....	No. Germ. Lloyd..	Sept. 14–20, 1909.....	5	7	25
Plymouth to New York....	Deutschland.....	Hamburg-Am.....	July 7–12, 1900.....	5	15	46
New York to Naples.....	Deutschland.....	Hamburg-Am.....	Jan. 20–28, 1904.....	7	16	44

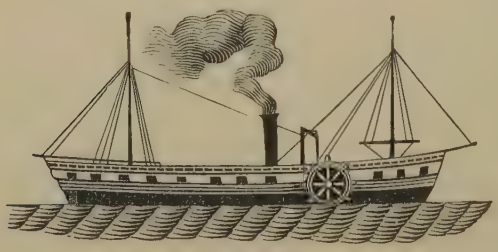
Approximate Distances: Sandy Hook (Lightship), New York, to Queenstown (Roche's Point), 2,800 miles; to Plymouth (Eddystone), 2,962 miles; to Southampton (The Needles), 3,100 miles; to Havre, 3,170 miles; to Cherbourg (The Mole), 3,184 knots. The fastest day's run was made by the Mauretania, of the Cunard line, June, 1909—673 knots, or 26.55 knots per hour.

LOST ATLANTIC STEAMSHIPS.

Name of Vessel.	Owners.	Nationality.	Persons on Board.	Date of Leaving Port.
President.....	British and American S. N. Company	British	136	March 11, 1841
Pacific.....	Collins Line.....	American	240	Sept. 23, 1856
Tempest.....	Anchor Line.....	British	150	Feb. 26, 1857
United Kingdom....	Anchor Line.....	"	80	April 17, 1868
City of Boston.....	Inman Line.....	"	177	Jan. 28, 1870
Scanderia.....	Anglo-Egyptian Line.....	"	38	Oct. 8, 1872
Ismailia.....	Anchor Line.....	"	52	Sept. 27, 1873
Colombo.....	Wilson Line.....	"	44	January, 1877
Herman Ludwig.....	.....	German	50	Sept. 28, 1878
Homer.....	.....	British	43	Dec. 17, 1878
Zanzibar.....	.....	"	48	Jan. 11, 1879
Surbiton.....	.....	"	33	Feb. 18, 1879
Bernicia.....	.....	"	45	March 19, 1879
City of Limerick....	.....	"	43	Jan. 8, 1881
City of London.....	.....	"	41	Nov. 13, 1881
Straits of Dover.....	.....	"	27	Jan. 3, 1883
Coniston.....	.....	"	27	Dec. 24, 1884
Fernwood.....	.....	"	25	Jan. 20, 1885
Preston.....	.....	"	29	Jan. 20, 1885
Clandon.....	.....	"	27	Jan. 24, 1885
Humber.....	.....	"	56	Feb. 15, 1885
Erin.....	National Line.....	"	72	Dec. 31, 1889
Thanemore.....	Johnston Line.....	"	43	Nov. 26, 1890
Naronic.....	White Star Line.....	"	..	February, 1893

A MODERN HUDSON RIVER STEAMER.

Steamboats, HUDSON RIVER. Announcements similar to the following in the New York papers at that exciting period, when the War of 1812–15 was in progress, were of frequent occurrence: "The Albany steamboat which arrived yesterday brings intelligence that Fort Erie had surrendered to the troops of the United States under Generals Dearborn and Lewis, with little or no resistance on the part of the enemy." The following advertisement, which is taken from the New York *Evening Post* of June, 1813, with a copy of a picture of "the steamboat" at its head, will seem curious to the traveller now:



HUDSON RIVER STEAMBOATS.

For the information of the public.

The *Paragon,* Captain Wiswall, will leave New York every Saturday afternoon at five o'clock. The *Car of Neptune,* Captain Roorback, do., every Tuesday afternoon at five o'clock. The *North River,* Captain Bartholomew, do., every Thursday afternoon at five o'clock.

The *Paragon* will leave Albany every Thursday morning at nine o'clock. The *Car of Neptune,* do., every Saturday morning at nine o'clock. The *North River,* do., every Tuesday morning at nine o'clock.

PRICES OF PASSAGE.

From New York to Verplanck's Point, $2; West Point, $2.50; Newburgh, $3; Wappinger's Creek, $3.25; Poughkeepsie, $3.50; Hyde Park, $4; Esopus, $4.25; Red Hook, $4.50; Catskill, $5; Hudson, $5; Coxsackie, $5.50; Kinderhook, $5.75; Albany, $7.

From Albany to Kinderhook, $1.50; Coxsackie, $2; Hudson, $2; Catskill, $2.25; Red Hook, $2.75; Esopus, $3; Hyde Park, $3.25; Poughkeepsie, $3.50; Wappinger's Creek, $4; Newburgh, $4.25; West Point, $4.75; Verplanck's Point, $5.25; New York, $7.

All other way passengers to pay at the rate of $1 for every twenty miles. No one can be taken on board and put on shore, however short the distance, for less than $1.

Young persons from two to ten years of age to pay half price. Children under two years, one-fourth price. Servants who use a berth, two-thirds price; half price if none.

The Invention of the Steamboat.—The following historical account of the application of steam for the propelling of boats, in a letter from Chancellor Livingston to the editors of the *American Medical and Philosophical Register,* was published in that journal in January, 1812. With

Fulton's letters, also reprinted herewith, it is the authoritative record of the earliest experiments: ———

It is much to be wished that a regular account of the introduction of useful arts had been transmitted by the historical writers of every age and country, not merely that justice might be done to the genius and enterprise of the inventors, and the nation by whom they were fostered, but that the statesman and philosopher might mark the influence of each upon the wealth, morals, and characters of mankind. Every one sees and acknowledges the changes that have been wrought by the improvements in agriculture and navigation, but seldom reflects on the extent to which apparently small discoveries have influenced not only the prosperity of the nation to which the invention owes its birth, but those with which it is remotely connected. When Arkwright invented his cotton-mills, the man would have been laughed at that ventured to predict that not only Great Britain would be many millions gainer annually by it, but that in consequence of it the waste lands of the Carolinas and Georgia would attain an incalculable value, and their planters vie in wealth with the nabobs of the East. A new art has sprung up among us, which promises to be attended with such important consequences that I doubt not, sirs, you will with pleasure make your useful work record its introduction; that when in future years it becomes common, the names of the inventors may not be lost to posterity, and that its effects upon the wealth and manners of society may be more accurately marked. I refer (as you have doubtless conjectured) to the invention of steamboats, which owe their introduction solely to the genius and enterprise of our fellow-citizens; the utility of which is already so far acknowledged that, although only four years have elapsed since the first boat was built by Mr. Livingston and Mr. Fulton, ten vessels are now in operation on their construction, and several more contracted for.

When Messrs. Watt and Bolton had given a great degree of perfection to the steam-engine, it was conceived that this great and manageable power might be usefully applied to the purposes of navigation; the first attempt, however, to effect this, as far as I have yet learned, was made in America in the year 1783. Mr. John Fitch (having first obtained from most of the States in the Union a law vesting in him for a long term the exclusive use of steamboats) built one upon the Delaware. He made use of Watt and Bolton's engine, and his propelling power was paddles. This vessel navigated the river from Philadelphia to Bordentown for a few weeks, but was found so imperfect, and liable to so many accidents, that it was laid aside, after the projector had expended a large sum of money for himself and his associates.

Rumsey, another American, who was deservedly ranked among our most ingenious mechanics, followed Fitch; but, not being able to find men at home who were willing, after Fitch's failure, to embark in so hazardous an enterprise, he went to England, where, aided by the capital of Mr. Daniel Parker and other moneyed men, he built a boat upon the Thames, which, after many and very expensive trials, was found defective, and never went into operation. Rumsey's propelling power was water pumped by the engine into the vessel and expelled from the stern.

The next attempt was made by Chancellor Livingston, to whom, as to Fitch, the State of New York gave an exclusive right for twenty years, upon condition that he built and kept in operation a boat of 20 tons burthen, that should go at the rate of 4 miles an hour. He expended a considerable sum of money in the experiment, and built a boat of about 30 tons burthen, which went 3 miles an hour. As this did not fulfil the conditions of his contract with the State, he relinquished the project for the moment, resolving, whenever his public avocations would give him leisure, to pursue it. His action upon the water was by a horizontal wheel placed in a well in the bottom of the boat, which communicated with the water at its centre; and when whirled rapidly round propelled the water by the centrifugal force through an aperture in the stern. In this way he hoped to escape the encumbrance of external wheels or paddles, and the irregularities that the action of the waves might occa-

sion. Not being able with the small engine he used, which was an 18-inch cylinder, with a 3-foot stroke, to obtain, as I have said, a greater velocity than 3 miles an hour, and fearing that the loss of power in this way was greater than could be compensated by the advantage he proposed from his plan, he relinquished it: but, as I am informed, still thinks that when boats are designed for very rough water it may be eligible to adopt it in preference to external wheels.

Not long after, John Stevens, Esq., of Hoboken, engaged in the same pursuit, tried elliptical paddles, smoke-jack wheels, and a variety of other ingenious contrivances—sometimes of his own invention, and again in conjunction with Mr. Kinsley, late one of our most distinguished mechanicians. None of these having been attended with the desired effect, Mr. Stevens has, since the introduction of Messrs. Livingston and Fulton's boat, adopted their principles, and built two boats that are propelled by wheels, to which he has added a boiler of his invention, that promises to be a useful improvement on engines designed for boats. While these unsuccessful attempts were making in America, the mechanics of Europe were not wholly inattentive to the object. Lord Stanhope, who deservedly ranks very high among them, expended a considerable sum of money in building a steamboat, which, like all that preceded it, totally failed. His operating power upon the water was something in the form of a duck's foot. A gentleman in France (whose name I have forgotten), when Mr. Livingston and Mr. Fulton were building their experimental boat on the Seine, complained in the French papers that the Americans had forestalled his invention; that he had invented a boat that would go 7 miles an hour, and explained his principles. Mr. Fulton replied to him, and showed him that attempts had been previously made in America, and assuring him that his plan was quite different. Mr. —— would not answer. He had expended a great deal of money and failed; he made use of a horizontal cylinder and chain-paddles.

After the experiments made by Mr. Livingston and Mr. Fulton at Paris, a boat was built in Scotland that moved in some measure like a small boat that was exhibited for some time at New York by Mr. Fitch. The cylinder was laid horizontally, and her action upon the water was similar to his; but, as her speed upon the water was a little better than 2 miles an hour, I presume she has gone into disuse.

You will not, sir, find this record of the errors of projectors uninteresting, since they serve the double purpose of deterring others from wasting time and money upon them, and of setting in its true light the enterprise of those who, regardless of so many failures, had the boldness to undertake and the happiness to succeed in the enterprise.

Robert R. Livingston, Esq., when minister in France, met with Mr. Fulton, and they formed that friendship and connection with each other to which a similarity of pursuits generally gives birth. He communicated to Mr. Fulton the importance of steamboats to their common country, informed him of what had been attempted in America and of his resolution to resume the pursuit on his return, and advised him to turn his attention to the subject. It was agreed between them to embark in the enterprise, and immediately to make such experiments as would enable them to determine how far, in spite of former failures, the object was attainable. The principal direction of these experiments was left to Mr. Fulton, who united, in a very considerable degree, practical to a theoretical knowledge of mechanics. After trying a variety of experiments on a small scale, on models of his own invention, it was understood that he had developed the true principles upon which steamboats should be built, and for the want of knowing which all previous experiments had failed. But, as these gentlemen both knew that many things which were apparently perfect when tried on a small scale failed when reduced to practice upon a large one, they determined to go to the expense of building an operating boat upon the Seine. This was done in the year 1803, at their joint expense, under the direction of Mr. Fulton, and so fully evinced the justice of his principles that it was immediately determined to enrich their country by the valuable discovery as soon as they should meet there, and in the mean time to order

an engine to be made in England. On the arrival at New York of Mr. Fulton, which was not until 1806, they immediately engaged in building a boat of what was then considered very considerable dimensions. This boat began to navigate the Hudson River in September, 1807; its progress through the water was at the rate of 5 miles an hour. In the course of the ensuing winter it was enlarged to a boat of 140 feet keel and 16½ feet beam. The legislature of the State were so fully convinced of the great utility of the invention, and the interest the State had in its encouragement, that they made a new contract with Mr. Livingston and Mr. Fulton, by which they extended the term of their exclusive right five years for every additional boat they should build, provided that the whole term should not exceed thirty years, in consequence of which they have added two boats to the North River boat (besides those that have been built by others under their license), the *Car of Neptune,* which is a beautiful vessel of about 300 tons burthen, and the *Paragon, of* 350 tons, a drawing of which is sent you herewith, together with a description of her interior arrangements.

It will appear, sir, from the above history of steamboats, that the first development of the principles and combinations upon which their success was founded was discovered by Mr. Fulton in the year 1803, and grew out of a variety of experiments made by him and Mr. Livingston for that purpose, at Paris, about that period; and that the first steamboat that was ever in this or any other country put into useful operation (if we except the imperfect trial of Fitch) was built upon those principles by Mr. Livingston and Mr. Fulton, at New York, in 1807. From these periods the invention of the art may be dated. I will not trouble you with an explanation of these principles; they are now so clearly developed in his patents, and rendered so obvious by being publicly reduced to practice, that any experienced mechanic may, by a recourse to them, build a steamboat. What has hitherto been a stumbling-block to the ablest mechanicians of the old and new world is now become so obvious and familiar to all that they look back with astonishment upon their own failures, and lament the time they have been deprived of this useful invention. Had it not been for a fortunate occurrence of circumstances, it is highly probable that another century would have elapsed before it had been introduced. Past failures operated as a discouragement to new trials; the great expense that attended experiments upon the only scale on which it could succeed would have deterred any but men of property from engaging in the enterprise; and how few of these are there in any country that choose to risk much in projects, and upon such especially as have repeatedly proved unfortunate? Add to this that without special encouragement from the government, and a perfect security of their rights, in case of the success of so expensive and hazardous an enterprise, it could not have been expected that any individuals would have embarked their time, their fame, and their fortunes in it. In the present instance, happily for our country, mechanical talents and property united with the enthusiasm of projectors in the enterprise, and the enlightened policy of this State afforded it a liberal patronage. Under these circumstances a new art has happily, and honorably for this country, been brought into existence. Speed, convenience, and ease have been introduced into our system of travelling, which the world has never before experienced, and the projectors, stimulated by the public patronage and the pride of success, have spared no expense that can contribute to the ease and safety of travellers. Their boats are furnished with every accommodation that can be found in the best hotels. Every new boat is an improvement upon the one that preceded, until they have obtained a degree of perfection which leaves us nothing to wish but that the public, duly impressed with the advantage they have received from their labors, may cheerfully bestow on them the honor and profit to which the boldness of their enterprise and the liberal manner in which it has been executed so justly entitle them.

A Friend to Science.

ROBERT FULTON TO AARON OGDEN (1814) ON THE INVENTION OF THE STEAMBOAT.

Sir,—Studiously occupied on a new invention which presents a prospect of great

national utility, and relying on the dignified integrity of a legislature distinguished for the patronage and patriotism it gives to useful improvements, I have not attended at Albany to guard from your address and industry the rights granted to Livingston and Fulton, and which I hope every upright and liberal mind will acknowledge they have faithfully and honorably earned.

But by letters received from Albany I am informed that in your address to the committee, among other things attempting to prove that I am not the inventor of steamboats, you exhibited Charnock's work on naval architecture to show that I have quoted him in my patent; and thereby you endeavored to make an impression that I had patented the experiments on the resistance of bodies moving through water *as my own.* If, sir, you have done so before the honorable committee, and they and the audience know it, then you have done it knowing it to be *false;* for you made a like attempt before a committee at Trenton in February last, at which time I presented to you and the committee the drawing from my patent and quotations from said work, at the bottom of which I gave the author credit for the information I received in the following words: "This table of the resistance of bodies moved through water is taken from experiments made in England by a society for the encouragement of naval architecture between the years 1793 and 1798." This fact you knew at Trenton, and there acknowledged that I had not attempted to patent the experiments of others, but only used them as a means for demonstrating principles. Hence, if at Albany you have impressed the committee with a belief that I could be so base as to pirate the labors of others, and present them to my liberal countrymen as my own, you have done an unjust and ungenerous deed, which would make the cheek of rigid honor blush. I say, if you have done so —for I place it on the conjunction *if*— you have departed from that noble candor, that respect for truth, which marks the moral man and man of honor; and you have attempted to destroy my character for honesty by depicting me as guilty of perjury, for in obtaining my patent I swore that I believed myself the original discoverer and inventor of the thing patented. To a man who loves his country, and whose greatest pleasure is to merit the esteem of his countrymen, this is too serious a charge to remain without refutation.

That a patent may be taken according to law, it must be so explained that a person skilled in an art which most resembles it could, from the specification, drawings, or models, make the machine. Therefore I drew from those tables such conclusions as, in my opinion, would show to other persons how the calculations should be made to ascertain as near as possible the resistance of any given boat while running from 1 to 6 or more miles an hour, and from her resistance also show what should be the power of the steam-engine to drive her the required velocity, then show what should be the size of the wheel-boards, which take the purchase on the water, and their speed compared to the speed of the boat, all of which were necessary to be ascertained, selected, and combined before any one could originate a useful steamboat; and it was for want of such selection and just combination of first principles, founded on the laws of nature, that every attempt at constructing useful steamboats *previous to mine failed.* But, now that they are discovered and carried into practice on the great scale, you and Mr. Dodd can copy them, and have copied them exact. This is proved by the affidavits of many experienced and respectable engineers, and will be acknowledged by every one who has the least information on mechanical combinations; yet neither you nor Mr. Dodd, possessed as you are of Charnock's book, now know the principles which originated and govern the construction of steamboats, nor can you find them in that book or any other.

But, as you have looked much into books, models, and abortive experiments to prove steamboats an old invention, can you show any publication, model, or work that distinctly points out what the power of the engine must be to drive the boat the required velocity? or any work that distinctly shows the best mode for taking the purchase on the water, whether by oars, paddles, sculls, endless chains, ducks' feet, valves, or wheels? or what

should be the size of the paddle-boards and their velocity? No, sir, *you cannot.* These indispensable first principles are nowhere to be found except in my patent. They are the discovery, the invention, which caused success. Previous to my experiments all was doubt and conjecture. No one could tell the requisite power of the engine, no one had determined the best mode for taking the purchase on the water or the powers and velocities of the component parts. If they had, why did you not avail yourself of them, and construct a useful steamboat ten years ago? If those proportions and powers, which are now demonstrated by actual practice in my boats on the great scale, and where every intelligent blacksmith and carpenter can go and measure them, copy them, and make a successful steamboat, were formerly known, how is it that Mr. Stevens, Chancellor Livingston, Mr. Rumsey, Mr. Fitch, Lord Stanhope, and Oliver Evans could not find them in twenty years' labor and at the expense of $100,000? Why were not steamboats made ten years ago? for Charnock's book has been published fifteen years. And here let me present to you a curious fact: the experiments in that book were in great part conducted by Lord Stanhope, who himself since failed in his experiments on steamboats; and, if you have not yet so far affected my character for truth that my countrymen will cease to believe me, I will state another fact: he (Lord Stanhope) in October, 1806, told me in London that I could not construct a successful steamboat on the principles and combinations I proposed and which I now practise with complete success. Consequently, that book does not show how to construct a steamboat any more than the multiplication table shows how to calculate an eclipse; yet the multiplication table is useful to those who know how to apply it to that purpose. But, now that I have succeeded, contrary to all public belief, though, as you say, without the merit of invention, you collect a basket of scraps, conjectures, and abortive essays, out of which, by a kind of magical sophistry, you attempt to place before a discerning committee a successful steamboat of some twenty years old. Suppose you were to collect a basket of old ballads and bad verse without ideas, but rhyming and containing the twenty-six letters of the alphabet, could you not from those parts used by Pope prove that he did not conceive or invent the *Dunciad* or *Essay on Man* and *Criticism?* Or, could you or Mr. Dodd have got his manuscript and put the strokes on his t's, might you not insist that you had made an important improvement, then print and sell the poems as your own? for such is exactly the kind of improvements you and Mr. Dodd have made on steamboats. But there is not so much to be made by such improvements on poetry as by moving parallel links from one part of a steam-engine to another: hence avarice suffers poets, particularly bad ones, to be tranquil, nor does it interfere with unsuccessful mechanicians. It is only the successful artists—they who really benefit their country—that are fit subjects for plunder. Cupidity never encroached on Fitch or Rumsey or on Lord Stanhope. They were not so fortunate as to succeed and exhibit profits. It even left tranquillity to me in 1807 and 1808. In those years the permanent success was not fully established nor the profits visible, but in 1809 they were. Then envy and avarice combined to destroy the inventor. Yet with these facts, known to every candid man in this State, you say steamboats are an old invention; and you have purchased from Fitch's heirs all their right to his invention. But his heirs, however, had no right; for his patent had expired five years before you purchased, and his invention, if good for anything, is public property. But, now that you have purchased Fitch's invention, as you say, for a valuable consideration, but, as it is believed at Trenton, for a mere nominal sum, that you might possess a phantom to frighten me or to perform in your exhibitions to the public, why have you not built your boat like his, with paddles behind and chain communications? It must be that you had not so much confidence in his invention as in mine; and for the good reason that he failed, but I had succeeded. And now, sir, permit me to make a remark on your logic. You say Fitch is an inventor, that his invention merits protection; yet you do not use any one part of it. There is no part of

this invention in your boat *Sea Horse*. Mr. Daniel D. Dodd is also an inventor, as you say, of one link in your great chain of argument; and yet Fulton, who investigated and combined just principles, constructed and gave to the world steamboats at the time the world had not one steamboat and the project was deemed visionary—this Fulton, according to your logic, is an imposter and no inventor. Why, sir, there is something so flimsy and totally ignorant of mechanical combination and inventor's rights in all these, your assertions, that it is an insult on common-sense to state them to any man who has the least penetration.

Having said so much, I have sent to Albany a copy of that part of my patent which contains extracts from Charnock's tables. It is attested by the clerk of the court to be a true copy. I have also sent a true copy of Fitch's patent, to show how much unlike it is to my boats and the one you have copied from me; and I have sent the certificates of two experienced English engineers, who are now engaged in Talman & Ward's manufactory in the Bowery, who state that the links claimed by Mr. Dodd as his invention and an important improvement have been to all Bolton & Watt's engines for fourteen years. When I put these links in my patent, I did not patent them exclusively for all kinds of machinery; nor did I patent the steam-engine or Charnock's tables. I made use of all these parts to express my ideas of a whole combination new in mechanics, producing a new and desired effect, giving them their powers and proportions indispensable to their present success in constructing steamboats; and these principles—those powers and parts which I combined for steamboats, and which never before had been brought together in any steamboat—I patented for that purpose and no other, as every artist who invents a new and useful machine must compose it of known parts of other machines. So in patent medicines—Lee's bilious pills: he did not invent their elements, but combined certain ingredients in certain proportions to make a useful medicine, in which the just proportions are absolutely necessary and part of the invention, as in mechanics the discovery of the proportion of the parts which produce the desired effect make part of the invention.

As you have been heard before the committee and a crowded house in pleading your own cause in your own way, carefully using only such arguments as you hoped would destroy me, I have thus sought the indulgence of a generous public to hear my statement of facts, none of which you can disprove. And now, sir, I leave your merits and mine to the honest and noble feelings of the penetrating gentlemen of this truly great and honorable State. They cannot be mistaken in your view. It is to seize on the property of mind—the fruit of ten years of my ardent studies and labor—and apply it to your own use, thereby destroying forever all confidence in contracts with this State and placing the property of inventors in a position so insecure as to destroy every mental exertion.

FULTON'S LETTER ON THE FIRST VOYAGE OF THE "CLERMONT."

To the Editor of the "American Citizen."

SIR,—I arrived this afternoon at four o'clock in the steamboat from Albany. As the success of my experiment gives me great hopes that such boats may be rendered of great importance to my country, to prevent erroneous opinions and give some satisfaction to my friends of useful improvements, you will have the goodness to publish the following statement of facts:

I left New York on Monday at one o'clock, and arrived at Clermont, the seat of Chancellor Livingston, at one o'clock on Tuesday: time, twenty-four hours; distance, 110 miles. On Wednesday I departed from the Chancellor's at nine in the morning, and arrived at Albany at five in the afternoon: distance, 40 miles; time, eight hours. The sum is 150 miles in thirty-two hours, equal to nearly 5 miles an hour.

On Thursday, at nine o'clock in the morning, I left Albany, and arrived at the Chancellor's at six in the evening. I started from thence at seven, and arrived at New York at four in the afternoon: time, thirty hours; space run through, 150 miles, equal to 5 miles an hour. Throughout my whole way, both going and returning, the wind was ahead. No

advantage could be derived from my sails. The whole has therefore been performed by the power of the steam-engine.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

ROBERT FULTON.

Stedinck, BURT BOGISLAUS LOUIS CHRISTOPHER, COUNT VON, military officer; born in Pomerania, Sweden, Oct. 26, 1746; graduated at the University of Upsala in 1768; joined the Swedish army early in life; promoted lieutenant-colonel; won distinction in aiding the French in the West Indies in 1778; accompanied D'Estaing to the United States in 1779, and Oct. 9 of that year commanded two important attacks on Savannah. After placing the American flag on the last breastwork he was wounded and forced to withdraw, having lost 450 of his 900 men. In recognition of his gallantry in aiding the Americans his King appointed him a colonel of dragoons and knight of the Order of the Sword. He was also decorated with the badge of the Society of the Cincinnati. He died in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1815.

Stedman, CHARLES, military officer; born in England about 1745; joined the British army and served against the colonists in the American Revolution; took part in the battle of Lexington, and afterwards served under Howe in Pennsylvania and New Jersey and then with Cornwallis in the South. He was the author of *The History of the Origin, Progress, and Termination of the American War.* He died in London, England, June 26, 1812.

Stedman, EDMUND CLARENCE, author; born in Hartford, Conn., Oct. 8, 1833; was a member of the class of 1853 of Yale College; on the editorial staff of the New York *Tribune* in 1859–61; war correspondent of the New York *World* in 1861–63; and has been an active member of the New York Stock Exchange since 1869. He is best known as a poet and critic. Among his notable critical works are *Victorian Poets* (1875); *Poets of America* (1885); *A Victorian Anthology* (1895); and *An American Anthology* (1900). He was associated with Ellen M. Hutchinson in the editorship of *A Library of American Literature* (11 volumes, 1888–89), and with Prof. D. E. Woodbury in that of *The Works of Edgar Allan Poe.* He died in New York, Jan. 18, 1908.

Steedman, CHARLES, naval officer; born in Charleston, S. C., Sept. 24, 1811; entered the navy in 1828; and served on the coast of Mexico during the war against that country. He was in command of the *Dolphin* in the Paraguay expedition in 1859–60; performed excellent service as commodore on the Southern coasts in 1861–62; and commanded the *Ticonderoga* in both attacks on Fort Fisher. In 1866 he was in command of the European Squadron, and in 1870 of the navy-yard at Boston. In 1871 he was promoted rear-admiral, and in 1873 was retired. He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 13, 1890.

Steedman, JAMES BARRETT, military officer; born in Northumberland county, Pa., July 30, 1818; was in Ohio in 1849, where he organized a company to cross the plains to California, gold-hunting. Returning, he became a member of the board of public works of Ohio. He entered the military service as colonel of the 4th Ohio Volunteers in 1861, and was active in western Virginia. He afterwards joined the army under Buell in Kentucky, and was appointed brigadier-general in July, 1862. At the battle of Perryville he was distinguished. The following year (1863) he commanded the 1st Division of the reserved corps of the Army of the Cumberland, and was made major-general of volunteers in April, 1864, for distinguished services in the battle of Chickamauga. He was active in the Atlanta campaign in 1864; and when Sherman departed for the sea he joined General Thomas in Tennessee, and was conspicuous in the battle of Nashville. He resigned July 9, 1866; became revenue collector at New Orleans, a State Senator, in Ohio. He died in Toledo, O., Oct. 18, 1883.

Steel. See IRON AND STEEL.

Steele, ESTHER BAKER, author; born in Lysander, N. Y., Aug. 4, 1835; received an academic education. In conjunction with her husband, Prof. Joel Dorman Steele, her works include *Barnes's Brief Histories; United States; France; Centenary History of the United States; Ancient Peoples; General History; Revised United States,* etc.

Steele, FREDERICK, military officer; born in Delhi, N. Y., Jan. 14, 1819; graduated at West Point in 1843; served during the war against Mexico; and was major of infantry at the beginning of the Civil War, in service in Missouri. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers for his good conduct at the battle of Wilson's

FREDERICK STEELE.

Creek, and major-general in November, 1862. He commanded a division under Sherman, and took part in the battle of Chickasaw Bluff and the capture of Fort Hindman. He commanded a division of Grant's army in the siege of Vicksburg, and afterwards commanded the Department of Arkansas to the end of the war. General Steele assisted in the capture of Mobile in April, 1865, he was then transferred to Texas. In March, 1865, he was brevetted major-general. He died in San Mateo, Cal., Jan. 12, 1868.

Steele, JOHN, military officer; born in Lancaster, Pa., Aug. 15, 1758; was captain in the Pennsylvania line during the Revolution; wounded at Brandywine; commander of Washington's life-guard in 1780; and assisted in the capture of Cornwallis. He was State Senator after the war, and was a commissioner to settle the Wyoming difficulties; and was also collector of the port of Philadelphia a long time, and general of the Pennsylvania militia. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Feb. 27, 1827.

Stein, CONRAD, historian; born in Heidelberg in 1701; Professor of History in the University of Breslau for many years; and published *The Atlantis and Its Connection with America; History of the Discoveries of the Scandinavian Sailors from the Twelfth to the Fifteenth Centuries; History of the American Colonies in North America; Spanish Discoverers—Cortez, Pizarro, and Almagro; Historical Notices of the Discovery of Venezuela; Short Description of America;* and *The Indian Race or Redskins, Its History with the German Race.* He died in Breslau, Germany, in 1762.

Steinberger, ALBERT BARNES, statesman; born in Schuylkill county, Pa., Dec. 25, 1840; educated at Princeton, and studied law; engaged in the manufacture of fire-arms about 1867. In April, 1872, the chiefs of the Samoan or Navigator Islands petitioned for annexation to the United States. On March 29, 1873, Steinberger was appointed a special commissioner to "obtain accurate information in regard to the Navigator Islands." On his arrival at Apia he met the chief rulers, but avoided the subject of annexation, while the former openly pressed it. In December, 1873, Mr. Steinberger returned to the United States and submitted a report which led to a memorable discussion in Congress. In December, 1874, he was again sent to the islands. Shortly after his arrival a new constitution was adopted, Malietoa, a powerful chief, was made king, and Mr. Steinberger prime minister and chief-justice. In October, 1875, a special agent was sent from Samoa to the United States with the draft of a treaty. Meanwhile complications arose involving the new government, the United States, England, and Germany. On Feb. 8, 1876, after charges had been preferred against Mr. Steinberger, he was placed on board the British vessel *Barracouta,* which landed him at Levuka, Fiji Islands, on March 29. Later he reached the United States and sought damages for his deportation, and also for the part in the affair taken by Mr. Foster, the United States consul at Apia. Foster was recalled and Captain Stevens of the *Barracouta* was summoned to England for trial. Although Mr. Steinberger was praised for his conduct at Samoa in the reports of Mr. Griffin,

the United States consul who succeeded Foster at Apia, nothing was ever done to vindicate him. He died in Dorchester, Mass., May 2, 1894.

Steiner, Bernard Christian, educator; born in Guilford, Conn., Aug. 13, 1867; graduated at Yale College in 1888; became librarian Enoch Pratt Library, Baltimore, Md., in 1892; associate professor of history at Johns Hopkins University in 1894; dean and professor of constitutional law, Baltimore University, in 1897; and professor of public law, Baltimore Law School, in 1900. He is the author of *Education in Maryland; Education in Connecticut; Institutions and Civil Government of Maryland; History of Guilford, Conn.; Citizenship and Suffrage in Maryland; Life and Correspondence of James McHenry*, etc.

Steinwehr, Adolph Wilhelm Friedrich, Baron von, military officer; born in Blankenburg, Brunswick, Germany, Sept. 25, 1822. He was educated at the military academy of Brunswick. He came to the United States in 1847, but returned to Germany. Coming again to the United States in 1854, when the Civil War broke out he raised a regiment in New York, and with it fought in the battle of Bull Run. In the fall of 1861 he was made brigadier-general, and commanded the 2d Brigade of Blenker's division. After the organization of the Army of Virginia Steinwehr was appointed to command the 2d Division of Sigel's corps, and was active in the campaign in Virginia from August to December, 1862. He was in the battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg in 1863. General Steinwehr published *A Topographical Map of the United States* and *The Centennial Gazetteer*. He died in Buffalo, N. Y., Feb. 25, 1877.

Stephen, Adam, military officer; born in Virginia about 1730; was an officer of merit in the French and Indian and other colonial wars, serving with distinction under Braddock. He was afterwards in command of Fort Cumberland, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. Returning from an expedition against the Creek Indians, he was assigned to the defence of the Virginia frontier and made brigadier-general. Commanding a Virginia regiment when the Revolutionary War began, he was made (September, 1776) brigadier-general in the Continental service, and in February, 1777, major-general. His behavior was exemplary in the battle of Brandywine; but yielding to temptation, he was intoxicated at the battle of Germantown, and was dismissed from the army. He died in Virginia in November, 1791.

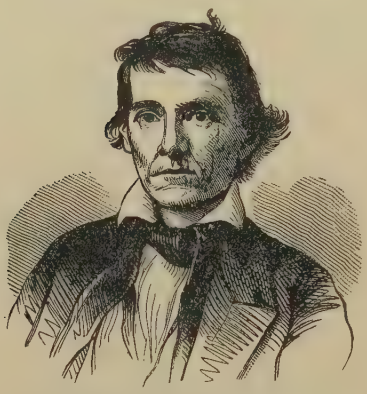
Stephen, James, author; born in Poole, England, in 1759; received a fair education and became a barrister; was a member of Parliament, and later was made under secretary for the colonies. He was the author of *American Arguments on Neutral Rights; Speech in the House of Commons on the Overtures of the American Government*, etc. He died in Bath, England, Oct. 10, 1832.

STEPHENS, ALEXANDER HAMILTON

Stephens, Alexander Hamilton, statesman; born near Crawfordsville, Ga., Feb. 11, 1812; was educated at Franklin College, and graduated in 1832. Being left an orphan, he was indebted to the care of friends for his education and youthful training for usefulness. He was admitted to the practice of the law in 1834 at Crawfordsville, and soon rose to eminence. His first care was to reimburse expenditures by his friends and to purchase from the hands of strangers the home of his childhood at Crawfordsville. In early manhood he adopted the doctrine of State Sovereignty (*q. v.*) in all its breadth, and always believed in the righteousness of slavery. In this doctrine and belief he always acted consistently. Though small in stature and weak in constitution, he gave many instances of personal courage. He entered the legislature of Georgia as a member in 1834, and remained there until 1841. In 1842 he was elected to the State Senate; and from 1843 to 1859 was a Representative in Congress, where he was an able and industrious worker on committees, and fluent in debate. He favored the annexation of Texas; supported Clay for President in 1844; took a leading part in effecting the com-

promises of 1850; and was an active supporter of the Kansas-Nebraska act.

When the old Whig party broke up, he joined the Democrats, and was a firm supporter of Buchanan's administration. He favored Douglas's election to the Presidency, and in various public addresses denounced those who advocated a dissolu-



ALEXANDER HAMILTON STEPHENS.

tion of the Union. On this subject he and Robert Toombs, of Georgia, were diametrically opposed, and at public meetings during the autumn and winter of 1860–61 these popular leaders had strong contentions in public, Stephens always setting forth the beneficence and value of the Union, Toombs denouncing it as an oppressor and a hinderance to the progress of Georgia. In a speech at Milledgeville opposing secession, Stephens said, "Some of our public men have failed in their aspirations. That is true, and from that comes a great part of our troubles." Toombs was present, and keenly felt this thrust at demagogues of every hue.

When a Georgia State convention debated the propriety of passing an ordinance of secession, Stephens, who was a member, opposed the scheme; but when it was adopted by a clear majority, he, in accordance with his views of paramount allegiance to his State, acquiesced in it and signed it. In his speech against it, he had said, "Should Georgia determine to go out of the Union, I speak for one, though my views might not agree with theirs, whatever the result may be, I shall bow to the will of the people of my State." A month later Mr. Stephens was vice-president of the Provisional Confederate Government. After the war Mr. Stephens was confined some time as a state prisoner in Fort Warren, in Boston Harbor, but was released Oct. 11, 1865. He published *History of the War between the States.* In 1866 he was chosen a delegate to the Philadelphia "National Union Convention." In 1877 he represented Georgia in Congress, and retained his seat until elected governor of that State in 1882. He died in Atlanta, Ga., March 4, 1883.

Slavery the Corner-stone.—In a speech delivered to the citizens of Savannah, Ga., in 1861, Vice-President Stephens declared the principles upon which the Southern Confederacy had been founded in the following words:

"The new constitution has put at rest forever all the agitating questions relating to our peculiar institutions—African slavery as it exists among us—the proper status of the negro in our form of civilization. This was the immediate cause of the late rupture and present revolution. Jefferson, in his forecast, had anticipated this, as the 'rock upon which the old Union would split.' He was right. What was conjecture with him, is now a realized fact. But whether he fully comprehended the great truth upon which that rock stood and stands may be doubted. The prevailing ideas entertained by him and most of the leading statesmen at the time of the formation of the old Constitution were that the enslavement of the African was in violation of the laws of nature; that it was wrong in principle, socially, morally, and politically. It was an evil they knew not well how to deal with; but the general opinion of the men of that day was that, somehow or other, in the order of Providence, the institution would be evanescent and pass away. This idea, though not incorporated in the Constitution, was the prevailing idea at the time. The Constitution, it is true, secured every essential guarantee to the institution while it should last, and hence no argument can be justly used against the constitutional guarantee thus secured, be-

cause of the common sentiment of the day. Those ideas, however, were fundamentally wrong. They rested upon the assumption of the equality of races. This was an error. It was a sandy foundation, and the idea of a government built upon it was wrong; when the 'storm came and the wind blew, it fell.'

"Our new government is founded upon exactly the opposite ideas; its foundations are laid, its corner-stone rests upon the great truth that the negro is not equal to the white man; that slavery, subordination to the superior race, is his natural and moral condition. This, our new government, is the first in the history of the world, based upon this great physical, philosophical, and moral truth. This truth has been slow in the process of its development, like all other truths in the various departments of science. It is so even among us. Many who hear me, perhaps, can recollect well that this truth was not generally admitted, even within their day. The errors of the past generation still clung to many as late as twenty years ago. Those at the North who still cling to these errors with a zeal above knowledge we justly denominate fanatics. All fanaticism springs from an aberration of the mind; from a defect in reasoning. It is a species of insanity. One of the most striking characteristics of insanity, in many instances, is forming correct conclusions from fancied or erroneous premises; so with the anti-slavery fanatics; their conclusions are right if their premises are. They assume that the negro is equal, and hence conclude that he is entitled to equal privileges and rights with the white man. If their premises were correct, their conclusions would be logical and just; but their premises being wrong, their whole argument fails. I recollect once of having heard a gentleman from one of the Northern States, of great power and ability, announce in the House of Representatives, with imposing effect, that we of the South would be compelled, ultimately, to yield upon this subject of slavery; that it was as impossible to war successfully against a principle in politics as it was in physics or mechanics. That the principle would ultimately prevail. That we, in maintaining slavery as it exists with us, were warring against a principle—a principle founded in nature, the principle of the equality of man. The reply I made to him was that upon his own grounds we should succeed, and that he and his associates in their crusade against our institutions would ultimately fail. The truth announced, that it was as impossible to war successfully against a principle in politics as well as in physics and mechanics, I admitted, but told him that it was he and those acting with him who were warring against a principle. They were attempting to make things equal which the Creator had made unequal.

"In the conflict thus far, success has been on our side, complete throughout the length and breadth of the Confederate States. It is upon this, as I have stated, our social fabric is firmly planted; and I cannot permit myself to doubt the ultimate success of a full recognition of this principle throughout the civilized and enlightened world.

"As I have stated, the truth of this principle may be slow in development, as all truths are, and ever have been, in the various branches of science. It was so with the principles announced by Galileo —it was so with Adam Smith and his principles of political economy. It was so with Harvey, and his theory of the circulation of the blood. It is stated that not a single one of the medical profession, living at the time of the announcement of the truths made by him, admitted them. Now they are universally acknowledged. May we not, therefore, look with confidence to the ultimate universal acknowledgment of the truths upon which our system rests? It is the first government ever instituted upon principles in strict conformity to nature, and the ordination of Providence, in furnishing the materials of human society. Many governments have been founded upon the principles of certain classes; but the classes thus enslaved were of the same race, and in violation of the laws of nature. Our system commits no such violation of nature's laws. The negro by nature, or by the curse against Canaan, is fitted for that condition which he occupies in our system. The architect, in the construction of buildings. lays the foundation

with the proper material—the granite—then comes the brick or the marble. The substratum of our society is made of the material fitted by nature for it, and by experience we know that it is the best, not only for the superior, but for the inferior race, that it should be so. It is, indeed, in conformity with the Creator. It is not for us to inquire into the wisdom of His ordinances or to question them. For his own purposes. He has made one race to differ from another as He has made 'one star differ from another in glory.'

"The great objects of humanity are best attained when conformed to His laws and decrees, in the formation of governments as well as in all things else. Our Confederacy is founded upon principles in strict conformity with these laws. This stone which was rejected by the first builders, 'is become the chief stone of the corner' in our new edifice.

"I have been asked, What of the future? It has been apprehended by some, that we would have arrayed against us the civilized world. I care not who or how many they may be; when we stand upon the eternal principles of truth we are obliged and must triumph.

"Thousands of people who begin to understand these truths are not yet completely out of the shell; they do not see them in their length and breadth. We hear much of the civilization and Christianization of the barbarous tribes of Africa. In my judgment, those ends will never be obtained but by first teaching them the lesson taught to Adam, that 'in the sweat of thy brow shalt thou eat bread,' and teaching them to work, and feed, and clothe themselves.

"But to pass on. Some have propounded the inquiry, whether it is practicable for us to go on with the Confederacy without further accessions. Have we the means and ability to maintain nationality among the powers of the earth? On this point I would barely say, that as anxious as we have all been, and are, for the Border States, with institutions similar with ours, to join us, still we are abundantly able to maintain our position, even if they should ultimately make up their minds not to cast their destiny with ours. That they ultimately will join us, be compelled to do it, is my confident belief; but we can get on very well without them, even if they should not.

"We have all the essential elements of a high national career. The idea has been given out at the North, and even in the Border States, that we are too small and too weak to maintain a separate nationality. This is a great mistake. In extent of territory we embrace 564,000 square miles and upward. This is upwards of 200,000 square miles more than was included within the limits of the original thirteen States. It is an area of country more than double the territory of France or the Austrian Empire. France, in round numbers, has but 212,000 square miles. Austria, in round numbers, has 248,000 square miles. Ours is greater than both combined. It is greater than all France, Spain, Portugal, and Great Britain, including England, Ireland, and Scotland together. In population we have upward of 5,000,000, according to the census of 1860; this includes white and black. The entire population, including white and black, of the original thirteen States was less than 4,000,000 in 1790, and still less in 1776, when the independence of our fathers was achieved. If they, with a less population, dared maintain their independence against the greatest power on earth, shall we have any apprehension of maintaining ours now?"

Mr. Howard Carroll contributes the following appreciation of Mr. Stephens as a statesman:

Alexander H. Stephens was one of the first public men in the country who had the foresight to fear that the agitation of the slavery question would ultimately result in a fratricidal struggle. Thus fearing, he never lost an opportunity of counselling moderation and forbearance. This, there can be no doubt, he did disinterestedly, and without for a moment believing that the result of such a struggle would be the downfall of the slave-holding power. He, like most political leaders, both North and South, was assured, even on the eve of the war, that "the divine institution" of slavery could not be overthrown. In an open letter to a number of his constituents,

written in May, 1860, he says upon this subject: "The times, as you intimate, do indeed portend evil, but I have no fears for the institution of slavery either in the Union or out of it, if our people are all true to themselves—true, stable, and loyal to fixed principles and a settled policy. If they are not thus true, I have little hope of anything good, whether the present Union last or a new one be founded. There is, in my judgment, nothing to fear from 'the irrepressible conflict' of which we hear so much. Slavery rests upon great truths, which can never be successfully assailed by reason or argument. It has grown stronger in the minds of men the more it has been discussed, and it will still grow stronger as the discussion proceeds and time rolls on. Truth is omnipotent, and must prevail! We have only to maintain the truth with firmness and wield it aright. Our system rests upon an impregnable basis that can and will defy all assaults from without. My greatest apprehension is from causes within. There lies the greatest danger. We have grown luxurious in the exuberance of our well-being and unparalleled prosperity. There is a tendency everywhere, not only at the North but at the South, to strife, dissension, disorder, and anarchy. It is against this tendency that the sober-minded, reflecting men everywhere should now be called upon to guard."

Prior to the writing of this letter, and just after the delivery of his great Milledgeville speech, in which he expressed similar views, Mr. Stephens received from the then President-elect Lincoln a note asking for a revised copy of that speech. To this Mr. Stephens replied in a letter which concludes with these words: "The country is certainly in great peril, and no man ever had heavier or greater responsibilities than you have in the present momentous crisis." Under date of Dec. 22, 1860, Lincoln replied in the following letter, which, it is to be noted, was held secret by Mr. Stephens until after the death of the President:

"[*For your own eye only.*]

"My dear Sir,—Your obliging answer to my short note is just received, and for which please accept my thanks. I fully appreciate the present peril the country is in, and the weight of responsibility on me. Do the people of the South really entertain fears that a Republican administration would directly or indirectly interfere with the slaves, or with them about the slaves? If they do, I wish to assure you, as once a friend, and still, I hope, not an enemy, that there is no cause for such fears. The South would be in no more danger in this respect than it was in the days of Washington. I suppose, however, that does not meet the case. You think slavery is right, and ought to be extended, while we think it is wrong, and ought to be abolished. That, I suppose, is the rub. It certainly is the only substantial difference between us.

"Yours, very truly,

"A. Lincoln.

"*To the Hon. Alexander H. Stephens.*"

In his reply to this characteristic communication,—Mr. Stephens still further gave voice to what must be regarded as having been the very general feeling then prevailing in the South. He said:

"In my judgment the people of the South do not entertain any fears that a Republican administration, or at least that the one about to be inaugurated, would attempt to interfere directly and immediately with slavery in the States. Their apprehension and disquietude do not spring from that source. They do not arise from the fact of the known anti-slavery opinions of the President-elect. Washington, Jefferson, and other Presidents are generally admitted to have been anti-slavery in sentiment, but in those days anti-slavery did not enter as an element into party organizations. . . . We at the South do think African slavery, as it exists with us, both morally and politically right. This opinion is founded upon the inferiority of the black race. You, however, and perhaps a majority of the North, think it wrong."

While Mr. Stephens held these views in regard to the institution of human slavery, however, and while he fully sided, as it must be admitted, with the most radical element in the slave-holding power, he was still wise enough to combat

with all the power of which he was capable many of the ridiculous notions in regard to what was called Northern despotism and Northern tyranny, which just before the war were entertained and publicly proclaimed by many Southern leaders. In a letter written on the first day of 1861 he, with great force, and a remarkably accurate knowledge of the people whom he criticised, expressed his views on this subject as follows:

"There are general and vague charges about consolidation, despotism, etc., and the South having, under the operation of the general government, been reduced to a minority incapable of protecting itself, etc. This complaint I do not think well founded. It arises more from a spirit of peevishness or restless fretfulness than from calm and deliberate judgment. The truth is, the South, almost *en masse*, has voted for every measure of general legislation that has passed both Houses and become law for the last ten years. Indeed, with but few exceptions, the South has controlled the government in its every important action from the beginning. The protective policy was once for a time carried against the South, but that was subsequently completely changed. Our policy ultimately prevailed. The South put in power, or joined the united country in putting in power and sustaining, the administrations of Washington for eight years. She put in and sustained Jefferson for eight years; Madison, eight years; Jackson, eight years; Van Buren, four years; Tyler, four years; Polk, four years; Pierce, four years; and Buchanan, four years. That is to say, the Southern people have aided in making and sustaining the administration for sixty years out of the seventy-two years of the government's existence. Does this look like we were or are in an abject minority, at the mercy of a despotic Northern majority, rapacious to rob and plunder us? It is true we are in a minority, and have been a long time. It is true, also, that a party at the North advocate principles which would lead to a despotism. . . . I have no doubt of that. But by the prudent and wise counsels of Southern statesmen this party has been kept in a minority in the past, and, by the same prudent and wise statesmanship on our part, I can but hope and think it can be so for many long years to come. Sound constitutional men enough at the North have been found to unite with the South to keep that dangerous and mischievous faction in a minority. And, although Lincoln has been elected, it ought to be recollected that he has succeeded by a minority vote, and even this was the result of the dissensions in the ranks of the conservative or constitutional men, North and South—a most unfortunate and lamentable event, and the more so from the fact that it was designedly effected by men who wished to use it for ulterior ends and objects."

By these and many similar private and public utterances Alexander H. Stephens tried to allay the excitement at the South, and to bring the people of that section away from the belief that it was desirable for them to secede from the Union. He sanctioned the theory of secession, but during all the dark days of 1860 urged with all his power that the republic be preserved. Upon this point there can be no doubt. Regarding the secession movement which was contemplated in Georgia in the winter of 1861, he wrote at that time: "I believe the State will go for secession, but I have a repugnance to the idea. I have no wish to be in a body of men that will give that vote. My judgment does not approve it; but" (and here occurs the one fatally weak point in Mr. Stephens's position) "when the State acts I shall abide by her decision with the fidelity of one who imagines that he feels the dictates of patriotism as sensibly and as strongly as any one who ever breathed the breath of life." He did abide by the decision of his State, though that decision was against his best judgment.

Once in "the Confederacy" it was not possible for him to remain inactive or obscure. His own ambition and restlessness of spirit, as well as the desire of the South, drove him to the front, until he became in a sense a candidate for the Presidency of the rebellious States, and ultimately the Vice-President under Jefferson Davis. How he secured that office, and how Mr. Davis was nominated for

the Presidency, is best told in his own words, as follows:

"What I know about Mr. Davis's nomination for President can be told in few words. Robert Toombs and I, as we got upon the cars at Crawfordsville, on our way to Montgomery, met Mr. Chestnut. The latter said that the South Carolina delegation had talked the matter over, and looked to Georgia for the President. I remarked that either, Mr. Toombs, Mr. Cobb, Governor Jenkins, or Governor Johnson would suit very well. He answered that they were not looking to any of the others, but to Mr. Toombs and myself. I told them, very frankly, that I did not wish the office; that, as I had not been in the movement, I did not think it policy to put me in for it. After getting to Montgomery, Mr. Keitt told me that I was the preference of the South Carolina delegation, and asked if I would serve if elected. I told him that I would not say in advance whether I would or would not accept. Even if unanimously chosen, I would first consider whether or not I could organize a cabinet with such concert of ideas and ability as to justify hopes of success on such line of policy as I should pursue.

"The night after the adoption of the permanent constitution the motion was made to go into the election of chief officers. It was then suggested that the election should take place the next day, at 12 M., and in the mean time the delegations should consult separately. The Georgia delegation met at ten o'clock on the morning of the day of the election. I proposed that we put in the name of Mr. Toombs for the Presidency, and asked him if he would have it. He said he would accept it if it was cordially offered him. Mr. T. Cobb and F. T. Bartow said that the delegations of Florida, Alabama, South Carolina, and Louisiana had conferred, and agreed to support Mr. Davis. Mr. Toombs seemed very incredulous of this, and his manner indicated some surprise. I did not understand this then, but did afterwards. The statement was reiterated; and upon it the delegation forbore to nominate Mr. Toombs, but determined to appoint a committee to ascertain if the report was true. Mr. Kenan then proposed that if it should be correct I should be put forward for Vice-President. Judge Nisbet said, 'I second that heartily!' Mr. Toombs said, 'I do, too. What do you say, Aleck?' I replied that I had not been in the movement, and doubted the policy of my assuming any office. But still there might be reasons why I should—as for the sake of harmony; that if I were to have any, I decidedly preferred the Vice-Presidency to any office in the government, but would not accept it unless it should be tendered me unanimously by the States and by every delegate. Mr. Crawford was then appointed a committee of one to ascertain and report to us, first, whether the report as to the action of those States was true; and, second, if my nomination would be acceptable to the entire body. Very soon he returned and announced that both the conditions were fulfilled. I afterwards learned that the action of the States alluded to was based upon intelligence received by them the night before, that Mr. Cobb would be presented by the Georgia delegation, and that Mr. Davis was not their choice. Toombs was the choice of the Florida, the Louisiana, and the South Carolina delegations."

In May, 1865, Mr. Stephens was arrested by federal troops at his home in Georgia, and taken to Fort Warren, in Boston Harbor. After his release he wrote a history of the war, and for a time edited a newspaper in Atlanta. He opposed "the new departure" in the South which favored the election of Horace Greeley to the Presidency, and from the first predicted Grant's triumph. His action in this direction was bitterly denounced by Democrats, North and South; but the result proving the wisdom of his views, he rapidly regained the confidence of the people of his State, and in 1873 was elected from "the old 8th District," which he had so faithfully represented before the war, to fill an unexpired term in Congress. He was elected and re-elected until 1882, when he was chosen governor of his State by a very large majority.

It was not ordained that he should live through his term. In Atlanta, the capital of his native and beloved Georgia, at half-past three o'clock on the morning of Sunday, March 4, 1883, his wonderful

brain, his wonderful will power, could no longer keep life in his wrecked and puny body. He died, according to his faithful physicians, Drs. Miller and Steiner, from a collapse of the mind brought about by constant, unremitting intellectual activity. His last words were,

"Oh, doctor, you hurt me!"

His funeral in Atlanta was attended by upward of fifty thousand weeping men and women. All Georgia mourned for him. Several other States, and towns and cities in all parts of the country, did honor to his memory by resolutions and the adjournment of courts and public councils.

At the grave of Stephens, Toombs, massive but tottering and almost blind, was for a time unable to control himself. For several moments he wept and sobbed aloud. Then, with a supreme effort to be calm, but still in a choked and faltering voice, he delivered the oration from which are taken the following passages:

"I come to mingle my tears with all the men and women and even children of Georgia over 'Aleck' Stephens, and not to make a eulogy. His acts are written in letters of gold. From the accidents of life, from the contiguity of our places, natives of the same county, from similarity of tastes and pursuits, more of my life has been spent in the presence of and in close contact with our illustrious friend than with any other man that is living or dead, from my infancy to manhood. His whole life was an open book. He was more the child of his country than any man that ever breathed. With early advantages to a degree and extent that seemed to forbid, absolutely forbid by the hand of God, the work that was before him, I know that he never counted on a day of life for more than forty years. Yet, like the faithful soldier, whenever the roll was called his answer was 'Here.' He took his mission from the voice of God—conscience. He always determined from his cradle to live for his country. His maxim from early life was, that there was no subject worthy of the human intellect but the well government of the human race. There was the field to which he was called—the well government of the human race. It was the sheet-anchor of liberty and union. God was his ideal—the sheet-anchor of human virtue, of human happiness, and of all that was worth doing for in this life. There was for him a wide field of usefulness. His daily life was a sermon. Every act at the bar, every act in the court-house, preached a sermon that struck deep in the hearts of all that knew him.

"He was not always successful, but he had a will that dared to do right, to follow his convictions even in spite of his constituents. Calmly working out what was best to do, the world was not equal to him, the world was not worthy of him. Sometimes in political questions Mr. Stephens differed with the people of Georgia and of the United States, but he pursued the even tenor of his way, bearing malice to none, good-will to all. When the public had not risen to his elevated standard, when the citizens he served through love, when Georgia even differed with him, he gracefully bowed, like a dutiful son to a father.

"His life was devoted to instructing, to feeding, and to clothing the poor, without regard to country, to sect, or to creed. Even personal vice never could take from him the charity of his heart. He was too great for defeat—the country could not spare him. We differed in opinion, but there never was one pang of discord. I never did differ from him without doubt. He was not a stubborn man. Under the heat of canvass injustice of what you might call the rankest kind left no pang behind. I remember, after the fall of the Confederacy, when I urged him to leave the country, he said, 'No, I am old, weak in bodily infirmities, but I have done my duty to God and my country, and I am ready for anything that the public may assign me.' He was put in prison, and suffered many of the indignities that such a state would produce anywhere. I am not making reproaches, but the temper of a sworn, bloody, and determined war brings these things. He looked it calmly in the face. He viewed not in trepidation and anger, but he marched as briskly to the prison as he did to the grave, saying, 'I am ready to stand trial.' These mark him to be a man—every one of these things. Neither chagrined by treachery nor disheartened, a great soul, he looked

upon his country with love; his last breath was for her cause. He stands with immortality. It is stamped upon the hearts of the weeping people of Georgia, upon his sorrowing countrymen throughout the bounds of this land, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. All looked with love and admiration, and mingled their sorrows with the people of Georgia. Looking through his whole life—take any part of that glorious existence that you desire—he was no despairer of the republic in the worst defeats and the greatest dangers; and the hearts of the people are turned to admire the man that never despaired of the republic and of human liberty. He overturned principles to reassert, with a firm faith, that there is life in the old land yet; that truth is immortal, and cannot die. He had faith and confidence, having devoted his whole life to that great cause of truth and his country. He met the greatest misfortunes with devoted patriotism. His great heart rose with a nation's calamities and his dying breath was his country's. Throughout this broad land every heart is a mourner. People who were formerly his opponents, but not his enemies—he was not an enemy of the North—not an enemy of the wicked—he was not an enemy of the bad—his heart was big enough to cover every human being's misfortunes and sorrows—mourn for him.

"'Mr. Stephens, of Georgia,' was the only title he ever claimed. He was the child of the State, the child of the republic—yes, the child of humanity—and his was one of the few immortal names that were not born to die."

One of the leading journalists in New York City wrote the following estimate of Mr. Stephens on the day after his death:

"Georgia has given to the country two men whose public careers, sketched by the pen of some modern Plutarch, might be made to illustrate each other by striking contrasts and brilliant antitheses. One is Alexander H. Stephens, whom the Empire State of the South lately chose for her chief magistrate, and whose death she now deplores. The other is Robert Toombs, who, having survived the slaughter of the South's sacred 'liberties,' now calmly awaits the coming of the day when he shall 'perish in the last ditch.' It may not be said of Mr. Stephens that he courted popular favor by striving to be always on the popular side, regardless of conviction, yet after nearly half a century of active participation in politics, during which he has at every critical point uniformly disappointed both his friends and his enemies, being 'everything by turns and nothing long,' he passes away in the very flower of his fame, beloved by the people of his own State and spoken of with respect and kindliness by the whole country; while Mr. Toombs, 'grand, gloomy, and peculiar'—indeed, the most remarkable mixture of grandeur and absurdity in our history—sulks solitary in his tent, unreconstructed, irreconcilable, and voicing his abhorrence of the Union in his own style of robust and picturesque anathema quite as freely as in 1861. Mr. Stephens, if we may accept his own judgment on his public course, had too much respect for the popular will to set up his own opinions against it when it was once clearly manifested to him. Mr. Toombs has too much will of his own to make any account of that of the people. Candid and thoroughly 'reconstructed' men in the South no doubt consider Mr. Toombs a man of mischievous example and evil influence, while looking upon Mr. Stephens as a safe guide and a statesman of moderate and wholesome counsel. The truth is that, rightly viewed, the former is a harmless personage, while a public man of Mr. Stephens's inconstant mind is always a source of danger, and generally does much harm.

"The facts and lessons of Governor Stephens's life may be dwelt upon for a moment without any violation of the rule which compels the saying of all the evil things about a man before he dies. His position on the question of secession, which has been so often discussed, was such as we can now see the very nature of the man compelled him to take. There was in his mental constitution an unfortunate balancing of forces which forbade him to make great leading principles his guides and stick to them. He was in early life a Whig, and afterwards a Democrat. He favored the admission of Texas as a State, but opposed the Mexican War. He fought with all his strength for the extension of

slavery in the Territories, but when the long struggle with the slave power culminated in the Presidential campaign of 1860 he was found on neither side, but in the middle, working for the stale and unprofitable compromise represented in the candidacy of Stephen A. Douglas. When the tide of secession rose and began to sweep across the South he battled against it, and for a time the North looked hopefully to him as one who might stay its progress. 'You have a right to withdraw from the Union,' he told the Georgians, 'for your State is a sovereign among sovereigns; but for Heaven's sake don't do it until you have a better reason. You must stand by the Constitution of your country until you are driven to desert it.' This sounds like lofty patriotism. It passed for such, even at the North. But when secession was an accomplished fact, Mr. Stephens did not retire to his old home, as Robert Toombs would have done, had the ordinance been carried against his vote. He immediately accepted the situation, and with it the Vice-Presidency of the Confederate States of America. His position after the war was perfectly consistent with his career of inconsistencies. He acquiesced with ready cheerfulness in the final settlement of all the questions over which it had been fought, but declared that his 'original convictions' had undergone no change. He clung to the empty husk of the State-rights idea after the ear within had withered to dust. Last summer the Georgia Independents looked hopefully to Mr. Stephens as their possible candidate for governor. They foresaw that with a leader of his strength and popularity they could startle the hosts of Bourbonism in their encampment. Mr. Stephens felt the stir of independent aspiration in his frail body, and allowed a friend to telegraph to the new party in Georgia that he would not reject their nomination. Then came censorious mutterings from the Bourbons, and Mr. Stephens, deciding that the errors of the party should be corrected 'within its ranks,' announced that he could be a candidate of the organized Democrats only. The indecision he here revealed was entirely characteristic.

"Mr. Stephens, in the course of his political career, seemed very often on the point of becoming great through adherence to a great and sound conviction in the face of overwhelming opposition, but he always failed. He stood many times as a dike against rushing waters, but he always gave way. The strength of his moral nature was just below the safety-point of resistance to the strain put upon it. He disappointed and vexed the secessionists quite as bitterly as he did the Unionists, because of his incapacity to embrace a cause with his whole heart. Need it be said that the greatest misfortunes of States come upon them when such men as Mr. Stephens are set to guard against dangers from without and within? He knew his weakness as well as others, but he called it obedience to the will of the majority. It would be doing violence to historical truth to assent to this view of the teachings of his life and work."

Stephens, John Lloyd, author; born at Shrewsbury, N. J., Nov. 28, 1805; graduated at Columbia College in 1822; studied at the Litchfield Law School, and practised in New York. From 1834 to 1836 he was in Europe, and went to Egypt and into Arabia and the Holy Land. He travelled in Greece, Turkey, Russia, and Poland, and published accounts of incidents of travel in those countries. In 1839 he was appointed special ambassador to Central America, when he explored the ancient ruins in that country. On his return he published *Incidents of Travel in Central America, Chiapa, and Yucatan* (2 volumes). In 1842 he again visited that region and made further investigations, and in 1843 he published *Incidents of Travel in Yucatan.* All of his works were very popular, those on the antiquities of Yucatan having acquired an enormous sale. They are regarded as the richest contributions on the subject of American antiquities ever made by one man. Frederic Catherwood accompanied Mr. Stephens, and made numerous drawings for the books. Mr. Stephens was a director of the Ocean Steam Navigation Company. He was also president of the Panama Railroad Company, and was active in the construction of the road. In the constitutional convention of the State of New York (1846) Mr. Stephens was a delegate from the

city of New York. He died in New York City, Oct. 12, 1852.

Stephens, WILLIAM, educator; born in the Isle of Wight, England, Jan. 28, 1671; educated at Cambridge University; studied law and held a seat in Parliament; went to South Carolina to survey a barony of land in 1730; became secretary of the trustees in 1737; appointed president of Savannah county, Ga., in 1741, and of the whole colony two years later. He held the latter office till nis health broke, in 1750. He was the author of *A Journal of the Proceedings in Georgia, beginning Oct. 20, 1737* (3 volumes). He died in Georgia in August, 1753.

Stephenson, FORT, DEFENCE OF. At Lower Sandusky (now Fremont), O., for-

FORT STEPHENSON.

merly stood a regular earthwork, with a ditch, circumvallating pickets, bastions, and block-houses, called Fort Stephenson. In 1813 it was garrisoned by 160 men, under the command of MAJ. GEORGE CROGHAN (*q. v.*). Tecumseh had urged Proctor to renew the siege of Fort Meigs, but that timid officer hesitated a long while. Finally, late in July, he appeared before the fort (in command of General Clay) with his own and Tecumseh's followers, about 4,000 strong. Satisfied that he could not take the fort, Proctor and his white troops embarked, with their stores (July 28), for Sandusky Bay, with the intention of attacking Fort Stephenson. The Indians marched across the heavily wooded country to assist in the siege. Croghan was vigilant. He had been advised by his superiors to evacuate the fort when it was known that an overwhelming force of the enemy was approaching. He preferred to remain, and did so, in half disobedience of orders. The British arrived in their boats on the 31st, when Croghan perceived that the woods were swarming with Indians. Tecumseh had concealed about 2,000 of them in the forest to watch the roads along which reinforcements for the fort might approach.

Proctor at once made a demand for the surrender of the fort, accompanied by the usual threat of massacre by the Indians in case of a refusal. Croghan defied him, and immediately a cannonade and bombardment were commenced from the gunboats and from howitzers which the British had landed. It was then 4 P.M. All night long the great guns as-

sailed the fort with very little effect, and were answered occasionally by a solitary 6-pounder cannon, which was all

MAJ. GEORGE CROGHAN.

the ordnance possessed by the little garrison. It was shifted from one block-house to another to make the enemy believe the fort was well armed with several great guns. During the night the British dragged three 6-pounder cannon to a point higher than the fort, and early the next morning there opened fire on the works. This continued several hours, the garrison remaining silent.

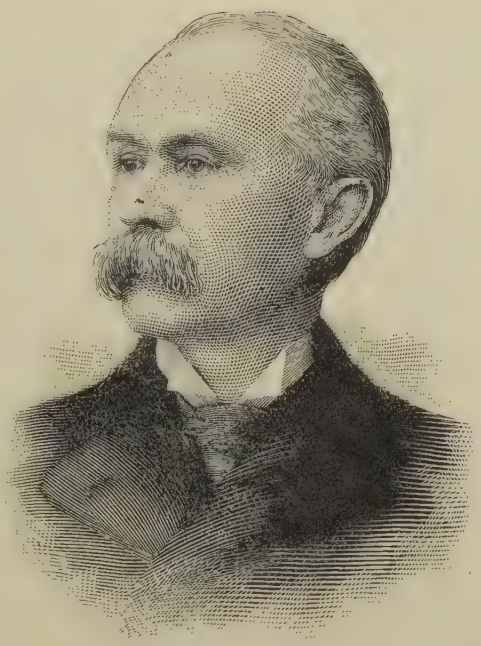
Proctor became impatient, and his Indian allies were becoming uneasy, for there were rumors of reinforcements on the way to relieve the fort. Proctor determined to storm it, and at 5 P.M., while a thunder-storm was approaching, the British marched in two columns to assail the fort; at the same time British grenadiers made a wide circuit through the woods to make a feigned attack at another point. As the two columns advanced the artillery played incessantly upon the fort, and under cover of this fire they reached a point within 15 or 20 paces of the pickets before they were discovered. The garrison consisted mostly of Kentucky sharp-shooters. These now opened a deadly fire with their rifles. The British lines wavered, but soon rallied; and the first, led by Lieutenant-Colonel Short, pushed over the glacis, leaped into the ditch, and were about to obey their commander, who shouted, "Cut away the pickets, my brave boys, and show the damned Yankees no quarter!" when the 6-pounder cannon, mounted and masked in a block-house that commanded the moat, opened a terrible storm of slugs and grape-shot, which swept along the

MAJOR CROGHAN'S MEDAL.

living wall with awful effect. The second column, led by Lieutenant Gordon, leaped into the ditch, and met with a similar reception. Both leaders and many of their followers were slain, and a precipitate and confused retreat followed.

The cowardly Indians, who were always afraid of cannon, had not joined in the assault. The loss of the British in killed and wounded was 121 men; the garrison lost one man killed and sevral wounded. For this gallant defence Croghan received many honors. Congress awarded him a gold medal.

Sterett, ANDREW, naval officer; born in Baltimore, Md., about 1760; joined the navy in 1798; executive officer on the frigate *Constellation* when she took the French frigate *L'Insurgente* in 1799; captured *L'Amour de la Patrie* in 1800 while commanding the *Enterprise;* and with the same vessel won a brilliant victory in 1801 in the Mediterranean over a Tripolitan cruiser, killing fifty of the latter's crew without losing one of his own. In recognition of this feat Sterett received a vote of thanks from Congress, and, on Feb. 3, 1802, a sword. He died in Lima, Peru, Jan. 9, 1807.



GEORGE MILLER STERNBERG.

Sternberg, GEORGE MILLER, surgeon; born in Hartwick Seminary, Otsego county, N. Y., June 8, 1838; graduated at the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York, in 1860; appointed an assistant surgeon in the national army in May, 1861; served through the Civil War, after which he was on duty at different posts till Dec. 1, 1875, when he was promoted surgeon with the rank of major; was a member of the yellow fever commission to Havana in 1879, and a United States representative to the international sanitary conference in Rome, in 1885. During the American-Spanish War in 1898 he had charge of the medical service. His publications include *Malaria and Malarial Diseases; Text-Book of Bacteriology; Immunity, Protective Inoculations, and Serum-therapy;* and numerous government reports. In May, 1893, he was promoted surgeon-general; retired June 8, 1902.

Sterne, SIMON, lawyer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., June 23, 1839; graduated at the law department of the University of Pennsylvania in 1859; became a specialist on railroad and constitutional law. His publications include *Representative Government; Development of Political and Constitutional History in the United States;* contributions on railways, monopolies, legislation, etc., in Lalor's *Cyclopædia of Political Science and United States History.* He died in New York City, Sept. 22, 1901.

Steuart. See STEWART; STUART.

Steuart, GEORGE H., military officer; born in Baltimore, Md., in 1828; graduated at West Point, 1848; resigned commission at beginning of the Civil War and entered the Confederate army; commanded Maryland troops at Harper's Ferry and directed destruction of government buildings when evacuating it; promoted brigadier-general, 1862; was in many battles, including those of Gettysburg; severely wounded at Cross Keys and captured at the Bloody Angle; exchanged and served to close of war. He died at Annapolis, Md., Nov. 22, 1903.

THE WOUNDING OF GENERAL STEUART.

Steuben, FREDERICK WILLIAM AUGUSTUS, BARON VON, military officer; born in Magdeburg, Prussia, Nov. 15, 1730; educated at Neisse and Breslau. At the siege of Prague he was, at the age of fourteen years, a volunteer under his father, and was so distinguished at Prague and Rossbach in 1757 that he was made adjutant-general the next year. In 1761 he was sent prisoner to St. Petersburg, but was soon released, and in 1762 was placed on the staff of

Frederick the Great of Prussia. In 1764 he was appointed grand-marshal and general of the guard of the Prince of Hohenzollern-Hechingen, who made him a knight of the Order of Fidelity. Leaving an ample income, he came to America late in 1777 (arriving at Portsmouth, N. H., in November), and joined the army under

BARON VON STEUBEN.

Washington at Valley Forge. He was appointed inspector-general of the army with the rank of major-general in March, 1778, and fought as a volunteer in the battle of Monmouth in June. Steuben introduced thorough discipline in the army, and prepared a manual of tactics which was approved by Congress. He commanded in Virginia in 1781, and was distinguished at Yorktown in October. The State of New Jersey gave him a small farm at the close of the war, and the State of New York gave him 16,000 acres of wild land in Oneida county. The national government gave him an annuity of $2,500. He withdrew from society, built a log house on his domain in New York (afterwards Steubenville), and lived there until his death, Nov. 28, 1794. He gave a tenth of his estate to his aides—North, Popham, and Walker—and his servants, and parcelled the remainder among his tenants.

STEUBEN'S LOG HOUSE.

He was generous, witty, cheerful, and of polished manners. Steuben was buried in the town of Steuben, about 7 miles northwest of Trenton Falls. There, in 1826, a monument was erected over his grave, the recumbent slab bearing only his name and title. His aide, Colonel North, caused a mural monument to be erected to his memory upon the walls of the German Reformed Church in Nassau Street, New York City, and on Dec. 7, 1910, a statue to his memory, with a long and eulogistic inscription was unveiled in Washington, D. C., with high official ceremonies. The Congress also honored his memory by ordering an imposing statue of the old soldier for presentation to the German government, and in 1911 it was decided to erect it at Potsdam.

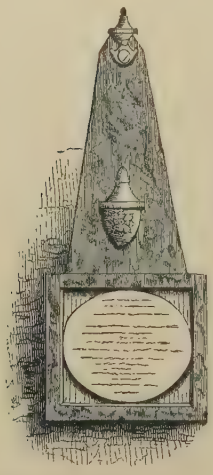
On the day that Washington resigned his commission as commander-in-chief he wrote to Steuben, making full acknowledgment of the valuable services rendered by him in the course of the war. As a proper testimonial of Steuben's merits in a military capacity the letter is here inserted.

"ANNAPOLIS, *Dec. 23, 1783.*

"MY DEAR BARON,—Although I have taken frequent opportunities, in public and private, of acknowledging your great zeal. attention, and abilities in perform-

STEUBEN'S MONUMENT.

ing the duties of your office, yet I wish to make use of this last moment of my public life to signify in the strongest terms my entire approbation of your conduct, and to express my sense of the obligations the public is under to you for your faithful and meritorious services.



STEUBEN'S MURAL MONUMENT.

"I beg you will be convinced, my dear sir, that I should rejoice if it could ever be in my power to serve you more essentially than by expressions of regard and affection; but in the mean time I am persuaded you will not be displeased with this farewell token of my sincere friendship and esteem for you.

"This is the last letter I shall write while I continue in the service of my country. The hour of my resignation is fixed at twelve to-day; after which I shall become a private citizen on the banks of the Potomac, where I shall be glad to embrace you, and testify the great esteem and consideration with which

"I am, my dear baron, etc.,

"GEORGE WASHINGTON."

Stevens, ABEL, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 19, 1815; received a collegiate education; studied theology and was ordained in the Methodist Episcopal Church. His publications include *Memorials of the Introduction of Methodism into the Eastern States; History of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States of America; The Centenary of American Methodism; A Compendious History of American Methodism*, etc. He died in San José, Cal., Sept. 11, 1897.

Stevens, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, bibliographer; born in Barnet, Vt., Feb. 19, 1833; son of Henry Stevens; educated in the University of Vermont; later became United States despatch agent in London and also agent to purchase books for American libraries. He spent more than thirty years drawing up manuscript alphabetical and chronological catalogue indexes of American historical matter, from 1763 to 1784, contained in numerous archives in England, Holland, France, and Spain. He also made 2,107 fac-similes of valuable historical papers found in European archives relating to the United States during 1773–83. He edited and published *The Campaign in Virginia in 1787*, in which is given the Cornwallis-Clinton controversy; and photographic fac-similes of Columbus's *His Own Book of Privileges, 1502, with English translation, etc.; General Sir William Howe's Orderly Book from June 17, 1775, to May 26, 1776, with Précis of the Correspondence*, etc. He died in London, March 5, 1902.

Stevens, EBENEZER, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., Aug. 22, 1751; formed one of the famous "Boston Tea-party," and soon afterwards went to Long Island. He entered the military service in 1775, and raised two companies of artillery and one of artificers for the expedition against Canada. In November, 1776, he was appointed major, and commanded the artillery at Ticonderoga and in the battle of Stillwater, or Bemis's Heights. In April, 1778, he was made lieutenant-colonel and assigned to Lamb's artillery regiment; and he served with Lafayette in Virginia in 1781, participating in the capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown. He was for many years a leading merchant in New York, and major-general of militia, serving, in 1814, in the defence of the city of New York. He died in Rockaway, Long Island, N. Y., Sept. 2, 1823.

Stevens, EDWARD, military officer; born in Culpeper county, Va., in 1745; commanded a battalion of riflemen at the battle of Great Ridge, and was soon afterwards made colonel of the 10th Virginia Regiment, with which he joined the army under Washington and fought in the battle of Brandywine, saving a part of the army there from capture by his skill and bravery. After the battle of Germantown he was made a brigadier-general. He was distinguished in the battle near Camden and at Guilford Court-house, and was highly commended by General Greene for

his services. At the latter battle he was severely wounded. He was also distinguished at the siege of Yorktown. General Stevens was a State Senator from the organization of the State government in Virginia until 1790. He died in Culpeper county, Va., Aug. 17, 1820.

Stevens, Edwin Augustus, philanthropist; born in Hoboken, N. J., July 28, 1795; had large interests with his brother, Robert Livingston Stevens, in navigation and railroads. In 1842 he invented an air-tight fire-room, which later was adopted in all great navies of the world. He was the founder of Stevens's Institute of Technology, in Hoboken, to which he bequeathed $150,000 for the building, and an endowment of $500,000. He died in Paris, France, Aug. 8, 1868.

Stevens, Henry, bibliographer; born in Barnet, Vt., Aug. 24, 1819; graduated at Yale College in 1843; became interested in the early historical relations between America and England; went to the latter country in search of American historical matter in 1845, and remained abroad until his death, in South Hampstead, England, Feb. 28, 1886. He succeeded in gathering an immense amount of valuable material relating to the history of the United States, and had access to the original documents in the State Papers Office in London. His publications include *Catalogue of a Library of Works Relating to America; Catalogue of American Books in the Library of the British Museum; Historical and Geographical Notes on the Earliest Discoveries in America; Schedule of 2,000 American Historical Nuggets; American Books with Tales to 'Em; Who Spoils Our New English Books? Recollections of James Lenox*, etc.

Stevens, Isaac Ingalls, military officer; born in Andover, Mass., March 25, 1818; graduated at West Point, first in his class, in 1839, and entered the engineer corps. He was attached to General Scott's staff during the war in Mexico (1847–48) as adjutant, and was severely wounded in the attack on the city of Mexico. He resigned in 1853, and was appointed governor of Washington Territory and placed in charge of the survey of a route for a North Pacific railway, establishing its practicability. Governor Stevens was a delegate to Congress from Washington Territory from 1857 till 1861. A leading Democrat, he was in the convention at Charleston and Baltimore in 1860, and supported Breckinridge for the Presidency; but when the secession movements began he advised Buchanan to dismiss Floyd and Thompson, and supported the government nobly with his sword in the Civil War that ensued, entering the military service as colonel of the 79th New York Highlanders. He was active under Sherman in the Port Royal expedition in 1862; was afterwards attached to Pope's command, leading a division; and in the battle at Chantilly fell while bearing aloft the colors of one of his regiments and cheering on his men, Sept. 1, 1862. He had been promoted major-general of volunteers, July 4, 1862.

Stevens, John, inventor; born in New York City, in 1749; graduated at King's College (now Columbia University) in 1768; and studied law, but never practised. Seeing John Fitch's steamboat on the "Collect" in New York in 1787, he became interested in the subject of steamboat navigation, and experimented for nearly thirty years. He unsuccessfully petitioned the legislature of New York for the exclusive navigation of the waters of the State. He built a propeller in 1804—a small open boat worked by steam. It was so successful that he built the *Phœnix*, a steamboat completed soon after Fulton and Livingston had set the *Clermont* afloat. The latter having obtained the exclusive right to navigate the waters of New York, Stevens placed his boats on the Delaware and Connecticut rivers. In 1812 he published a pamphlet urging the United States government to make experiments in railways traversed by carriages propelled by steam, and proposed the construction of a railway for such a purpose from Albany to Lake Erie. This was nearly a quarter of a century before such a work was accomplished. He died in Hoboken, N. J., March 6, 1838.

Stevens, John Austin, author; born in New York City, Jan. 21, 1827; graduated at Harvard College in 1846; became librarian of the New York Historical Society. He founded the *Magazine of American History*, of which he was editor for many years, and was the originator and first president of the Society of Sons

of the Revolution. His publications include *The Expedition of Lafayette against Arnold; The Burgoyne Campaign; The French in Rhode Island; Life of Albert Gallatin.* He died in Newport, R. I., June 16, 1910.

Stevens, JOHN D., military officer; born in Staunton, Va., June 8, 1821; admitted to the bar in 1841 and began practice in Franklin county, Mo., in 1842; served in the Mexican War, and afterwards settled in St. Louis. He was an earnest advocate of the Union cause, recruited the 7th Missouri Volunteers in 1861; promoted brigadier-general of volunteers in 1862; defeated the Confederate left flank at Champion Hill; and commanded an expedition that expelled the Confederates from northern Louisiana. He was promoted colonel in 1866, and brevetted major-general of volunteers in 1867; was retired in 1871; and then resumed the practice of law.

Stevens, ROBERT LIVINGSTON, engineer; born in Hoboken, N. J., Oct. 18, 1787; son of John Stevens, the inventor. At the age of twenty years he built a steamboat with concave water-lines, the first application of the wave-line to ship-building. He discovered the utility of employing anthracite coal in steam navigation in 1818, when coal was about to become an article of commerce. In 1822 he first substituted the skeleton wrought-iron for the heavy cast-iron walking-beam, and in 1824 first applied artificial blast to the boiler furnace. In 1827 he introduced the "hog-frame" for steamboats to prevent their bending in the centre. Mr. Stevens began the first steam ferriage between New York and the New Jersey shores in 1816, and was the inventor of the T rail for railroads. He was a projector of the Camden and Amboy Railroad, and its president for many years. About 1815 he invented an improved bomb for the naval service. In 1842 he was commissioned by the United States government to build an immense steam iron-clad floating battery for the defence of the harbor of New York. It was left unfinished at the time of his death, and was bequeathed to the State of New Jersey, and afterwards sold for its materials. He died in Hoboken, N. J., April 20, 1856.

STEVENS'S IRON-CLAD FLOATING BATTERY.

Stevens, THADDEUS, statesman; born in Danville, Vt., April 4, 1792; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1814, and removed to York, Pa., where he taught school, studied law, and was admitted to the bar, practising for many years successfully in Gettysburg. In 1842 he removed to Lancaster, where he became a leader of the bar. Having served many years in the State legislature, he was sent to Congress in 1848, and was among the most earnest opposers of the extension of slavery. He was a member of Congress from 1857 until his death, in Washington, D. C., Aug. 11, 1868, and was a recognized leader. He was always conspicuous for his zeal and industry, and was radical in everything. He advocated the emancipation of the slaves with vehemence, urging President Lincoln to issue a proclamation to that effect, and he initiated and pressed the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. He always advocated extreme measures towards those who instigated and promoted the Civil War.

Stevens, THOMAS HOLDUP, naval officer; born in Charleston, S. C., Feb. 22, 1795; original name Holdup, Stevens being added by legislative enactment in 1815. He entered the United States navy in 1808, and was made lieutenant in July, 1813. In 1812 he volunteered for lake service, and in December he was severely wounded by a canister-shot through his hand while storming a battery at Black Rock, near Buffalo. In the summer of 1813 he superintended the

fitting and rigging of Perry's fleet at Erie, and in the battle, Sept. 10, he commanded the sloop *Trippe*, behaving gallantly. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 22, 1841.

Stevens, THOMAS HOLDUP, naval officer; born in Middletown, Conn., May 27, 1819; son of the preceding; entered the navy in 1836; was active in operations on the Southern coast, and in movements against Mobile in the Civil War. He was specially distinguished in operations against Forts Wagner and Sumter in 1863, and in the capture of the Confederate fleet and of Fort Morgan in the summer of 1864. He was promoted rear-admiral in 1879; retired in 1881. He died in Rockville, Md., May 15, 1896.

Stevens, WALTER HUSTED, military officer; born in Penn Yan, N. Y., Aug. 24, 1827; graduated at the United States Military Academy and entered the engineer corps in 1848. In May, 1861, he joined the Confederates and became chief engineer on General Beauregard's staff; made brigadier-general and served in the Army of Northern Virginia till late in 1862; then built the defences of Richmond, after which he was chief engineer to General Lee till 1865. He died in Vera Cruz, Mexico, Nov. 12, 1867.

Stevens, WILLIAM BACON, clergyman; born in Bath, Me., July 13, 1815; graduated at the Medical Department of Dartmouth College in 1837, and practised till 1842; then studied theology and was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church; was consecrated assistant to Bishop Alonzo Potter, of Pennsylvania, in 1862, and upon the latter's death in 1865 succeeded to the bishopric. He was the author of *Discourses before the Historical Society of Georgia; History of Georgia* (2 volumes); *History of Silk Culture in Georgia*, etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., June 11, 1887.

Stevenson, ADLAI EWING, statesman; born in Christian county, Ky., Oct. 23, 1835; he had attained prominence at the State bar and had served as district attorney before reaching middle life; he early took an active part in politics as a Democrat, and from 1875 to 1877, and again from 1879 to 1881, he represented Illinois in the national House of Representatives. In 1885–89 he was first assistant

ADLAI EWING STEVENSON.

Postmaster-General; Vice-President, 1893–97. He was a member of a commission sent to Europe in 1897 to endeavor to secure international bimetallism; was defeated as candidate for Vice-President in 1900 and for governor of Illinois in 1908. He died June 13, 1914.

Stevenson, ANDREW, legislator; born in Culpeper county, Va., in 1784; became early distinguished in the profession of law; was first elected to the State House of Delegates in 1804; served there several terms and was speaker of that body; was a Democratic Representative in Congress in 1823–34, and during the last seven years was speaker. In 1836 he was appointed minister to England, where he remained till 1841, and then became rector of the University of Virginia, which he served during the remainder of his life. He died in Blenheim, Va., Jan. 25, 1857.

Stevenson, THOMAS GREELY, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., Feb. 3, 1836; was an excellent tactician, and when the Civil War began he drilled a large number of young men, who afterwards became distinguished in the field. He raised the 24th Massachusetts Regiment, and participated with it as colonel in the capture of Roanoke Island and New-Berne. He was active in eastern North Carolina, and was made brigadier-general

in 1862; served at Fort Wagner in 1863, and commanded the 1st Division of the 9th Corps when he fell near Spottsylvania, Va., May 10, 1864.

Stewart. See also STUART.

Stewart, ALEXANDER TURNEY, merchant; born in Lisburn, Ireland, Oct. 12, 1803; came to the United States in 1823 and settled in New York, where he taught school for a time. Later, by the death of his father, he received a moderate fortune, with which he established a small dry-goods store on Broadway. This business grew until in 1862 he owned the largest retail store in the world. At the time of his death his wealth was estimated at $50,000,000. His gifts to charity include $50,000 to the sufferers by the Chicago fire, 50,000 francs to the sufferers by the floods in Silesia, and other donations to similar objects. He died in New York City, April 10, 1876, and was buried on April 13, in St. Mark's church-yard, from which his remains were stolen on Nov. 7, 1878. In the midst of the excitement following the discovery of the robbery it was alleged that Judge Hilton, the executor of Mr. Stewart's estate, had been notified by one of the robbers that the remains would be surrendered on the payment of a specified sum, and that while the widow was willing to accede to the demand Judge Hilton declined negotiations on account of the large amount asked. It was afterwards stated that the remains were recovered and deposited in the mausoleum of the Cathedral of the Incarnation, erected by Mrs. Stewart in memory of her husband, at Garden City, L. I.

Stewart, ALVAN, reformer; born in South Granville, N. Y., Sept. 1, 1790; educated in Burlington College, Vermont. In 1811 he became professor in the Royal School in the seigniory of St. Armand in Canada, where he was held a prisoner during a part of the War of 1812. He settled in Utica, N. Y., in 1832, and gave his time chiefly to the advocacy of slave freedom and temperance. He was the first to urge the organization of a political party having for its distinct object the abolition of slavery. His published speeches include *Right of Petition; Great Issues between Right and Wrong,* etc. He died in New York City, May 1, 1849.

Stewart, ARCHIBALD, patriot; was a prime mover in the events that hastened the American Revolution; lived in Sussex county, N. Y., prior to the war; and was a member of the Continental Congress from Sussex county in 1775.

Stewart, AUSTIN, author; born of slave parents, in Prince William county, Va., about 1793; escaped and went to Rochester, N. Y., in 1817, and was there successful in business; was vice-president of the national convention of negroes in Philadelphia in 1830; became an agent for the *Anti-Slavery Standard* in 1839. He was the author of *Twenty-two Years a Slave and Forty Years a Freeman.* He died after 1860.

Stewart, CHARLES, naval officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 28, 1778; was the youngest of eight children, and lost his father when he was two years old. At the age of thirteen he entered the merchant service as a cabin-boy, and rose rapidly to be commander of an Indianman. In 1798 he was commissioned a lieutenant in the navy, making his first cruise with Captain Barney. In 1800 he was ap-

CHARLES STEWART, AGED EIGHTY-SIX.

pointed to the command of the schooner *Experiment*, and fought and captured the French schooner *Deux Amis* Sept. 1. Soon afterwards he captured the *Diana* (Sept. 14), besides recapturing a number of American vessels which had been taken by French privateers. In the war with Tripoli, Stewart was distinguished for skill and bravery, and was Decatur's favorite. In May, 1804, he was made master-commandant and placed in command of the frigate *Essex*. He was promoted to captain in 1806, and was employed in superintending the construction of gunboats at New York. In December, 1812, he was appointed commander of the frigate *Constellation*, and assisted in the defence of Norfolk against British marauders. He sailed on a cruise in the *Constitution* in December, 1813, and after her return she was laid up for a long time. Again sailing in her, he captured the *Cyane* and *Levant* (see CONSTITUTION, THE), and this was his last exploit in the War of 1812–15. After the war he was in command of the Mediterranean Squadron (1817–20), and from that time until the breaking out of the Civil War he was almost constantly in the naval service, afloat or ashore. In 1857 he was placed on the retired list on account of age, but in 1859 he was replaced on the active list by special legislation. In July, 1862, he was promoted to rear-admiral on the retired list. He died in Bordentown, N. J., Nov. 7, 1869. His daughter, Delia Tudor, became the mother of Charles Stewart Parnell.

Stewart, GIDEON TABOR, lawyer; born in Johnstown, N. Y., Aug. 7, 1824; was educated in Oberlin, O.; began the practice of law in Norwalk in 1846, and for a time was editor of the *Reflector*. He removed to Dubuque, Ia., in 1861, and owned and published the *Daily Times* during the Civil War. In 1876 he returned to Norwalk and resumed law practice. For many years Mr. Stewart was actively identified with the temperance movement, and in 1853 undertook to organize a National Prohibition party. The movement, owing to the Civil War and other causes, failed, but in 1869 such a party was formed in Chicago by a national convention, to which he was a delegate. He was for many years chairman of the national executive committee of his party, and was a candidate for a number of high offices. He was nominated for Vice-President on the ticket headed by Green Clay Smith in 1876; three times for governor of Ohio; nine times for judge of the Ohio Supreme Court; and three times for judge of the Circuit Court. He died in Pasadena, Cal., in 1909.

Stewart, WALTER, military officer; born about 1756; recruited a company in Pennsylvania at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War; appointed captain in 1776, and later aide to General Gates; colonel of the Pennsylvania Regiment of Foot in June, 1777; served with distinction throughout the war; brevetted brigadier-general in 1783. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., June 14, 1796.

Stewart, WILLIAM MORRIS, legislator; born in Lyons, N. Y., Aug. 9, 1827; educated at Yale College; went to California in 1850 and discovered the famous Eureka gold deposits in Nevada county; studied law in 1852; became attorney-general of California in 1854; settled in Virginia City, Nev., in 1860; was engaged in the development of the famous Comstock lode; was United States Senator in 1863–75 and 1887–1905; and practised law in the interval. He died in Washington, D. C., April 23, 1909.

Stiles, EZRA, clergyman; born in North Haven, Conn., Nov. 29, 1727; graduated at Yale College in 1746; was tutor there for six years. Dr. Franklin having sent an electrical apparatus to Yale College, Stiles and one of his fellow-tutors entered with zeal upon the study of this new science, and performed the first electrical experiments in New England. In consequence of religious doubts, he began to study law in 1752, and gave up preaching, for which he had been licensed in 1749. His doubts having been removed, he resumed preaching at Newport, R. I., in 1755. In 1777 he was invited to the presidency of Yale College and accepted, entering upon the duties June 23, 1778, and filled that office until his death. After the death of Professor Daggett, in 1780, Dr. Stiles filled his place himself as Professor of Divinity. By hard study he learned several Oriental languages, and corresponded with Jesuits in Latin, and Greek bishops in Greek. He was one of

the most gifted men of his time. He wrote *History of Three of the Judges of King Charles I.* (1794)—Goffe, Whalley, and Dixon, who came to this country. His published addresses and sermons, and his manuscript diary and other works are preserved at Yale in 45 bound volumes. He died in New Haven, Conn., May 12, 1795.

Stiles, HENRY REED, physician; born in New York City, March 10, 1832; graduated at the New York Ophthalmic Hospital in 1855; settled in Brooklyn in 1856, and practised there for several years. In 1869 he was one of the originators of the American Anthropological Society, and in 1872 aided in founding the New York City Public Health Association; was in charge of the Homœopathic Dispensary in Dundee, Scotland, in 1877–81. His publications include *The History and Genealogies of Ancient Windsor, Conn.; Monograph on Bundling in America; History of the City of Brooklyn, N. Y.; History of Kings County; The Wallabout Prison Ship;* many memoirs, etc. He died at Lake George, N. Y., Jan. 8, 1909.

Stiles, JOSEPH CLAY, clergyman; born in Savannah, Ga., Dec. 6, 1795; graduated at Yale College in 1814 and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1825; ordained in the Presbyterian Church in 1826; was an evangelist in Georgia and Florida in 1829–35; served thereafter as pastor and evangelist in various localities till 1875. He was the author of *Speech on the Slavery Resolutions in the General Assembly; Modern Reform Examined, or the Union of the North and South on the Subject of Slavery; The National Controversy, or the Voice of the Fathers upon the State of the Country,* etc. He died in Savannah, Ga., March 27, 1875.

Still, WILLIAM, philanthropist; born of African parents in Shamony, N. J., Oct. 7, 1821; removed to Philadelphia in 1844; became a clerk in the office of the Pennsylvania Anti-slavery Society; was corresponding secretary of the Philadelphia branch of the "underground railroad" in 1851–61; provided for the wife and children of John Brown during the time between his conviction and execution. He was actively engaged with several charitable institutions for negroes. His publications include *The Underground Railroad; Voting and Laboring;* and *The Colored People of Philadelphia.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., July 14, 1902.

Stille, CHARLES JANEWAY, historian; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 23, 1819; graduated at Yale College in 1839; member of the United States sanitary commission during the Civil War; provost of the University of Pennsylvania in 1868–80. His publications include *How a Free People Conduct a Long War; Northern Interest and Southern Independence; A Plea for United Action; Memorial of the Great Central Fair for the United States Sanitary Commission; History of the United States Sanitary Commission; Studies in Mediæval History; Historical Development of American Civilization; Maj.-Gen. Anthony Wayne and the Pennsylvania Line in the Continental Army,* etc. He died in Atlantic City, N. J., Aug. 11, 1899.

Stillwater, BATTLE OF. See BEMIS'S HEIGHTS, BATTLES OF.

Stimson, FREDERIC JESUP (pen-name, "J. S. of Dale"), lawyer and author; born in Dedham, Mass., July 20, 1855; graduated at Harvard College in 1876 and at its Law School in 1878; assistant attorney-general of Massachusetts in 1884–85; general counsel to the United States Industrial Commission in 1898–1902; professor of comparative legislation, Harvard University, from 1903. He is the author of *Law Glossary; American Statute Law; Government by Injunction; Labor in Its Relation to Law; Hand-book to the Labor Law of the United States; Uniform State Legislation; The Law of the Constitutions, State and Federal;* magazine articles on *The Ethics of Democracy;* and several novels under his pen-name.

Stimson, HENRY LEWIS, lawyer; born in New York City, Sept. 21, 1867; educated at Yale and the Harvard Law School; admitted to the bar, 1891; United States attorney for the Southern District of New York, 1906–09; defeated as Republican candidate for governor of New York, 1910; appointed Secretary of War, May, 1911. While United States attorney he won a national reputation as a prosecutor of corruption. He brought to light the methods of the Sugar Trust, and se-

cured over $3,000,000 for the national government from it for customs frauds and rebating; convicted Charles W. Morse for misusing bank funds; and secured heavy fines from five railroads for rebating.

Stirling, LORD. See ALEXANDER, WILLIAM.

Stirling, SIR THOMAS, military officer; born in Scotland; entered the British army in 1757; served in America under Abercrombie and Amherst (1758–60); and in 1765 was stationed at Fort Chartres, Ill., whence he marched with his command to Philadelphia in 1766. Throughout the Revolutionary War he commanded the 42d Regiment, as its lieutenant-colonel. He was in the battle of Long Island and at the capture of Fort Washington in 1776; was at some of the most important engagements until 1780; when, as brigadier-general, he accompanied General Clinton in the capture of Charleston; was created a baronet in 1796, and rose to the rank of general in January, 1801. He died May 9, 1808.

Stith, WILLIAM, historian; born in Virginia, in 1689; studied theology and was ordained in the Church of England; was president of William and Mary College in 1752–53. He was the author of a

INTERIOR OF NEW YORK'S HISTORIC STOCK EXCHANGE (torn down in 1901).

EXTERIOR OF THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE, 1912.

History of Virginia from the First Settlement to the Dissolution of the London Company, etc. He died in Williamsburg, Va., Sept. 27, 1755.

Stobo, ROBERT, military officer; born in Glasgow, Scotland, in 1727; settled in Virginia early in life; appointed senior captain in a regiment recruited to oppose the

A PRAIRIE STOCK-FARM.

French in 1754; and directed the construction of Fort Necessity. When Maj. George Washington was forced to surrender the place he was one of the hostages given to the French; was later imprisoned in Quebec, but escaped with several companions on a third attempt, and after thirty-eight days of travel and hardship reached the British army at Louisburg; was promoted major while in captivity; went to England in 1760; and was commissioned captain in the 15th Foot. He left a valuable manuscript, which was edited by James McHenry under the title *Memoirs of Maj. Robert Stobo, of the Virginia Regiment.* He died after 1770.

Stock and Bond Commission. See RAILROAD SECURITIES COMMISSION.

Stock Exchange, THE NEW YORK, grew out of an informal organization by the stock-brokers, May 17, 1792, and was formally instituted in 1817. Its sessions were held in various rented rooms till 1827, when it occupied part of the first "Merchants' Exchange," then completed. This was burned Dec. 16, 1835. It was then removed to Jauncey Court (now 43 Wall Street); in 1842 to the new Merchants' Exchange, later the Custom House; in 1854 to the old Corn Exchange Bank building; in 1856 to Lord's Court in William Street, and in 1865 to its own fine building in Broad, near Wall Street, which was replaced in 1901 by a larger and more commodious building.

Stock-raising. It was not until the close of the Revolutionary War that much attention was paid to the improvement of the breeds of domestic animals in the United States. In 1783 some horned cattle were imported into Maryland, and passed into the hands of Matthew Patton. Some "short-horns" were imported from England into Westchester county, N. Y., from 1792 to 1796. In 1815 Henry Clay introduced the Herefords from England into Kentucky. Many associations have been formed for importing choice stock. The same may be said of American horses, sheep, and swine. In 1840 the aggregate number of bulls, cows, and oxen in the United States was 15,000,000 head. In 1880 (in the space of forty years) they

had increased to about 35,000,000. In 1876 the number was about 30,000,000, the total value of which was more than $1,500,000,000. No country raises finer horses than the United States, nor is any country so bountifully supplied with them. There were 12,000,000 in 1880, of which about 9,000,000 were on farms. This gave one horse to every five persons of the population. There were, also, about 1,800,000 mules and asses. Sheep husbandry is a large and profitable industry. There were fully 36,000,000 sheep in the United States, and they have increased largely in recent years. The fleece that commanded the highest premium at the world's fair in London in 1851 was grown among the hills of Tennessee. Early in the nineteenth century some efforts were made to improve the breed of swine in the United States. Soon after his return from Europe, Chancellor Livingston imported some and bred from them. There was much opposition at first among the farmers to this innovation; but the palpable superiority of the imported to the native swine was so apparent that the prejudice was soon overcome, and there began to be an improvement in the appearance of swine in many parts of the country. On Jan. 1, 1910, there were in the United States 21,040,000 horses, valued at $2,276,363,000; 4,123,000 mules, valued at $494,095,000; 21,801,000 dairy cows, valued at $780,308,000; 47,279,000 other cattle, valued at $917,453,000; 57,216,000 sheep, valued at $233,664,000; and 47,782,000 swine, valued at $436,603,000.

Stockbridge, HENRY, jurist; born in North Hadley, Mass., Aug. 31, 1822, graduated at Amherst College in 1845; admitted to the bar in 1848, and began practice in Baltimore; special district attorney for the War Department during the Civil War; elected to the Maryland legislature in 1864, and drew up the act that summoned the constitutional convention for the abolition of slavery in that State; was judge of the circuit court of Baltimore county in 1865; vice-president of the Maryland Historical Society, and editor of its publications for over twenty years; wrote Part XXII. of *The Archives of Maryland.* He died in Baltimore, Md., March 11, 1895.

Stockbridge Indians. After the fights at Lexington and Concord, about fifty domiciliated Indians of the Stockbridge tribe, accompanied by their wives and little ones, planted their wigwams in the woods near where the Charles River enters the bay. They formed a company of minute-men, authorized by the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts. On June 21 two Indians, probably of this company, killed four of the British regulars, and on July 8, 1775, some British barges in the Charles River were driven off by these Indians.

Stockton, JOHN POTTER, statesman; born in Princeton, N. J., Aug. 2, 1826; graduated at Princeton in 1843; United States minister to Rome, 1857–61; United States Senator, 1865–66, but was unseated; again United States Senator, 1869–75; attorney-general of New Jersey, 1877–97. He died in New York City, Jan. 22, 1900.

Stockton, RICHARD, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born near Princeton, N. J., Oct. 1, 1730; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1748; admitted to the bar in 1754; and soon became eminent in his profession and very popular as a citizen. He was a member of the council in 1768; judge of the Supreme Court of New Jersey in 1774; and was elected to Congress in 1776 in time to participate in the debates on the subject of independence. He signed the Declaration, and cordially supported the

MORVEN.

measures of the Continental Congress, in which he was active and influential. He was sent on a mission to the Northern army, and soon after his return, in November, 1776, a party of loyalists captured him. He was cast into prison, and was so ill-treated that when he was exchanged his health was so shattered that he never recovered. The British destroyed his library when they occupied Princeton at the close of 1776, and devastated his estate in the suburbs of Princeton, which he called "Morven." The portraits of the signer and his wife were pierced with bayonets, and the only books in his library which were saved were the Bible and Young's *Night Thoughts*. He died on his estate, Feb. 28, 1781.

Stockton, ROBERT FIELD, naval officer; born in Princeton, N. J., Aug. 20, 1795; grandson of Richard Stockton, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; entered the navy as midshipman in 1811; was conspicuous in several of the battles of the War of 1812–15; became captain in 1838, and resigned in May, 1850. In the Mediterranean and on the coast of Africa he was active and efficient—against the Algerine pirates in the first instance, and the slavers in the second—and in 1821 he made treaties with African chiefs by which was obtained the territory of Liberia (see COLONIZATION SOCIETY, AMERICAN). He also broke up the nests of many West India pirates. He was among the foremost in advocating steam-vessels for the navy, and the *Princeton*, built after his plan, in 1844, was the pioneer. In 1845 he was sent to the Pacific with 1,500 men, including 600 sailors, in a small squadron, and in a few months he was chiefly instrumental in conquering California and forming a provisional United States government there. He was United States Senator from 1851 to 1853, and to him the navy is indebted for the abolition of flogging on shipboard. He died in Princeton, N. J., Oct. 7, 1866. See FRÉMONT, JOHN CHARLES; KEARNY, STEPHEN WATTS.

Stoddard, RICHARD HENRY, author; born in Hingham, Mass., July 2, 1825; received a public school education in New York City; was literary reviewer for the New York *World* in 1860–70; accepted the same post on the New York *Mail and Express* in 1880. Among his publications are *Abraham Lincoln, a Horatian Ode; Putnam the Brave; A Century After;* etc. He died in New York, May 12, 1903.

Stoddard, WILLIAM OSBORN, author; born in Homer, N. Y., Sept. 24, 1835; graduated at the University of Rochester in 1857; secretary to President Lincoln in 1861–64; United States marshal for Arkansas in 1864–66; then devoted himself to journalism in New York City. He is the author of *Life of Abraham Lincoln; Lives of the Presidents* (10 volumes); *Table Talk of Lincoln; The White House in War Time; Battle of New York; Lincoln at Work; The Spy of Yorktown; The Boy Lincoln*, etc.

Stoddert, BENJAMIN, statesman; born in Charles county, Md., in 1751; joined the Continental army as captain of cavalry, and won distinction; was promoted major; received a severe wound in the battle of Brandywine and was forced to abandon active service; was Secretary of the Navy in 1798–1801, being the first to occupy that office. He died in Bladensburg, Md., Dec. 18, 1813.

Stokes, ANTHONY, jurist; born in England in 1736; admitted to the bar in London; made chief-justice of Georgia in 1768, and was councillor of the colony in 1772–82. When the Revolutionary War began he was imprisoned but soon exchanged. His property was confiscated in 1778. He settled in Charleston, S. C., and when that city surrendered he returned to England. His publications include *View of the Constitution of the British Colonies in North America and the West Indies; Narrative of the Official Conduct of Anthony Stokes*, etc. He died in London, England, March 27, 1799.

Stone, CHARLES POMEROY, military officer; born in Greenfield, Mass., Sept. 30, 1824; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1845; served in the Mexican War, and was promoted captain for gallantry in the battle of Molino del Rey. When the Civil War broke out he was appointed colonel of the 14th United States Infantry, and placed in command of the outposts and defences of Washington. On Oct. 20, 1861, he was ordered by General McClellan to closely watch the movements of the enemy and make a feint of crossing the Potomac at

Ball's Bluff. After obeying these orders it seems that he supposed the enemy might be surprised, and with that object in view crossed the Potomac in the night. On Oct. 21 he was attacked and defeated, with heavy loss. General Stone remained in his command till Feb. 9, 1862, when he was arrested and confined in Fort Lafayette in New York Harbor till Aug. 16. He was then released, as no charge had been made against him. Immediately after his arrest he applied to General McClellan for a statement of the cause, but received no reply, and during his imprisonment no notice was taken of his repeated applications for a speedy trial, for a copy of charges, and for access to the records, etc. After his release he reported by telegram for orders; but hearing nothing, he wrote on Sept. 25 to Gen. Lorenzo Thomas, adjutant-general, United States army, stating the case, and asking that charges be furnished him, or that he be placed on duty. General Halleck answered, Sept. 30, 1862, that he was no longer under arrest, but that he would give him no orders, as he had not been assigned to him for duty. On Dec. 1, 1862, General Stone, hearing nothing further, wrote General McClellan that, as far as he could learn, the authority for his immediate arrest was from him, and respectfully requested that he be furnished with a copy of the charges. General McClellan replied, Dec. 5, stating that the order was given by the Secretary of War; that the Secretary said it was made at the solicitation of the congressional committee on the conduct of the war, and based on testimony taken by them. This is the substance of all the information General Stone was ever able to collect after persistent efforts.

At last, on May 3, 1863, the government restored him to duty, making no acknowledgment of the injustice done him. He was assigned to duty in the Department of the Gulf, where he took part in several important engagements. In September, 1864, he resigned his commission. In 1870–83 he held a commission in the Egyptian army, and was the recipient of many honors from the Egyptian government. Returning to the United States, he became engineer-in-chief of the Florida Ship-canal and Transit Company. On April 3, 1886, he was chosen engineer-in chief for the erection of the Barthold statue pedestal, and after the completion of the work was grand marshal in the civic and military ceremony during the dedicatory service. He died in New York City, Jan. 24, 1887.

Stone, Ellen M., missionary; born in Roxbury, Mass., July 24, 1846; daughter of Benjamin Franklin and Lucy (Waterman) Stone; was educated in public schools; removed to Chelsea, Mass., in 1860; was engaged in teaching, and for eleven years was a member of the editorial staff of the *Congregationalist*. She sailed from New York to the mission-field among the Bulgarians, Oct. 5, 1878; arrived at Samokov, April 28, 1882; sailed for Boston, May 24, 1883, arriving June, 1883; returned to the mission-field June 6, 1885, and was at Philippopolis in November, 1885. On July 30, 1898, she sailed again to resume her work in Bulgaria.

About Sept. 1, 1901, Miss Stone and a woman companion were kidnapped by brigands, and after they had taken the women to a place of concealment the captors announced what they had done, and demanded an indemnity of $110,000 for Miss Stone's release, the money to be paid within thirty days. The news of the capture reached the United States on Sept. 5, and the friends of Miss Stone immediately communicated with the State Department at Washington, and started a movement for raising the indemnity by popular subscription. The United States government made forcible representations to the Turkish government and the Bulgarian authorities, and, as a result, orders were issued for troops to seek the retreat of the brigands and secure the release of Miss Stone and her companion. Through a fear lest the pursuit of the brigands by troops might lead to the torturing if not the murder of Miss Stone, it was understood in October that the troops had been called off from the search at the instigation of the United States government. The friends of Miss Stone raised more than one-half of the amount of the indemnity, and it was intimated that the United States government would guarantee the payment of the full amount and afterwards demand heavy damages from the Turkish government for the outrage.

In November, after protracted negotiations, $75,000 was offered to the brigands as a ransom, but was refused. Miss Stone and her companion were released Feb. 23, 1902. She at once returned to the United States.

Stone, LUCY, reformer; born in West Brookfield, Mass., Aug. 13, 1818; graduated at Oberlin College in 1847; began lecturing on woman's rights and anti-slavery in the same year; travelled extensively through the United States and Canada, lecturing to large audiences; one of the organizers of the first national woman's rights convention in Worcester, Mass., in 1850, of the New England Woman Suffrage Association in 1868, and of the American Woman Suffrage Association in 1869. In 1870 she established *The Woman's Journal*, of which she was editor till her death, in Dorchester, Mass., Oct 18, 1893.

Stone, THOMAS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Charles county, Md., in 1743. Educated by a Scotch tutor, he became a lawyer at Frederickton, Md., at the age of twenty-one. From 1775 to 1779 he was a member of Congress, and warmly supported the resolution for independence. He was a member in 1783–84, and was president *pro tempore* at one time. He was a member of the Maryland Senate repeatedly during the intervals of his attendance upon Congress. He died in Alexandria, Va., Oct. 5, 1787.

Stone, WILLIAM, colonial governor; born in Northamptonshire, England, about 1603; settled in Virginia. Later he arranged with the second Lord Baltimore, Cecil Calvert, to place in Maryland 500 Puritan colonists who claimed to have been ill-treated by the Episcopalians in Virginia. He was governor of Lord Baltimore's province in 1648–53. In recognition of his services to the proprietary he was given as much land as he could ride around in a day. He died in Charles county, Md., about 1695.

Stone, WILLIAM LEETE, historian; born in New Paltz, N. Y., April 20, 1792; learned the printer's trade and engaged in journalism, and in 1821 succeeded to the editorship of the New York *Commercial Advertiser*, of which he was a proprietor till 1844. He was the author of *History of the Great Albany Constitutional Convention of 1821; Narrative of the Grand Erie Canal Celebration; Border Wars of the American Revolution*, etc. He died in Saratoga Springs, N. Y., Aug. 15, 1844.

Stone, WILLIAM LEETE, author; born in New York City, April 4, 1835; son of the preceding; graduated at Brown University in 1858 and at the Albany Law School in 1859; practised in Saratoga Springs, N. Y., in 1860–63; later engaged in journalism. He is the author of *The Life and Times of Sir William Johnson, Bart.; Revolutionary Letters; Burgoyne's Campaign and St. Leger's Expedition; Life and Military Journals of Major-General Riedesel; History of New York City; Life and Writings of Col. William L. Stone; The Saratoga Battle-grounds; Sir John Johnson's Orderly Book; Life of George Clinton; Life of John Hay*, etc. He died in Mount Vernon, N. Y., June 11, 1908.

Stone Fleet, THE. The Confederates sank obstructions in the channel leading up to Norfolk in April, 1861. This hint was acted upon by the national government in December following. It sent a number of condemned merchant vessels, chiefly New England whale-ships, which had been stripped of their copper bottoms and filled with blocks of granite, to be sunk at the entrance to Charleston Harbor. Twenty-five of them—some of 400 tons burden—arrived off Charleston Bar Dec. 20. In their sides, below water-mark, were holes filled with wooden plugs, to be removed when they were in a proper position. Sixteen of these were sunk on the bar at the entrance of the main ship-channel, 6 miles from Fort Sumter, at intervals, checkerwise, so as to form disturbing currents, that would perplex, but not destroy, the navigation. It was intended as a temporary interference, but was a failure.

Stone River, BATTLE OF. See MURFREESBORO.

Stoneman, GEORGE, military officer; born in Busti, Chautauqua co., N. Y., Aug. 8, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1846; was captain, in command of Fort Brown, Tex., in 1861; and refused to obey the order of GENERAL TWIGGS (*q. v.*) to surrender the government property to the Confederates. He chartered a steamer, evacuated the post, and proceeded to New

York, where he arrived March 15. He was made major of the 1st United States Cavalry, and served in western Virginia as inspector-general until made a brigadier-general of volunteers and chief of cavalry, in August. He was active in the Peninsular campaign in 1862; and after the fall of General Kearny, at Chantilly, he took command of that general's division.

GEN. GEORGE STONEMAN.

He succeeded General Heintzelman as commander of the 3d Army Corps, which he led in the battle of Fredericksburg, and was promoted to major-general in November, 1862. In the Richmond campaign, in May, 1863, he commanded a cavalry corps on raids; and from January to April, 1864, he led the 23d Corps. Then he was transferred to the command of the cavalry in the Department of the Ohio.

In July, 1864, General Sherman ordered General Stoneman, at Atlanta, to take his own and Garrard's cavalry, about 5,000 in all, and move by the left, around Atlanta, to Macdonough, while McCook was to move by the right to Fayetteville, and, sweeping round, join the latter at Lovejoy's Station, on the Macon Railway. He moved on the night of July 28. Stoneman, ambitious, tried to do too much, and failed in nearly all his undertakings on that raid. He obtained consent to go farther than Lovejoy's, after reaching that station, and attempt the capture of Macon, and, pushing on, release the captives at Andersonville. He omitted to cooperate with McCook in his movement upon the railway at Lovejoy's, and with his own command, separated from Garrard's, about 3,000 in number, pressed on to Macon. There he was met by Confederate cavalry, under General Iverson, and was compelled to turn hastily back, closely pressed by the Confederates. His command was divided. One of his brigades reached Atlanta without much loss; another was dispersed, and the remainder, 1,000 strong, led by Stoneman himself, were surrounded by Iverson, and 700 of them made prisoners. The remainder escaped. Iverson had only about 500 men.

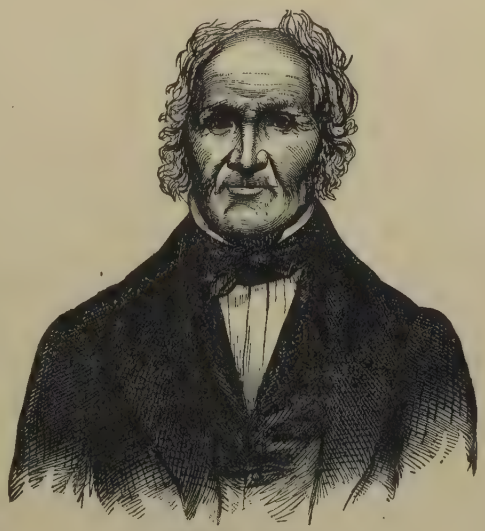
Late in 1864 General Stoneman took command in east Tennessee, and concentrated the forces of Gillem and Burbridge at Bean's Station. He moved towards Bristol (Dec. 12), where his advance struck a force under Basil Duke, one of Morgan's officers, near Kingsport, dispersed them, and captured their trains and eighty-four of their men. He menaced the salt-works at Saltville, in southwestern Virginia. General Gillem was very active in that region, and Stoneman proceeded to destroy the salt-works. Breckinridge, who was defending them, was driven over the mountains, and they were laid waste. Late in the winter Stoneman, who had returned to Knoxville, was ordered to make a cavalry raid into South Carolina, in aid of Sherman's movements. Before he was ready to move, Sherman had advanced so far that the raid into South Carolina was unnecessary, and Stoneman proceeded to strike and destroy the Virginia and Tennessee Railway, in southwestern Virginia. It was torn up to within 4 miles of Lynch-

burg by a part of his command. At the same time Stoneman, with his main body, advanced on Christiansburg, and, sending troops east and west, destroyed about 90 miles of the railroad. Then he turned his force southward (April 9, 1865), and struck the North Carolina Railway between Danville and Greensboro. He sent Colonel Palmer to destroy the railway between Salisbury and Greensboro and the factories at Salem, N. C., while the main body moved on Salisbury, forcing the Yadkin at Huntsville (April 11), and skirmishing near there. Palmer captured a South Carolina regiment of 400 men. Ten miles east of Salisbury (which was a depot for Union prisoners) the raiders encountered 3,000 Confederates, under Pemberton, Grant's opponent at Vicksburg. He had eighteen guns. This force was charged by the brigades of Gillem and Brown; its guns were captured, also 3,000 small-arms, and a large collection of ammunition, provisions, and clothing, and over 1,200 men were made prisoners. The Confederates, who fled, were chased several miles. At Salisbury the raiders destroyed 10,000 small-arms, four cotton-factories, 7,000 bales of cotton, a vast amount of ammunition, provisions, and clothing, and the railway tracks in each direction. The Union prisoners had been removed. On April 17 Stoneman started for east Tennessee. On the 19th Maj. E. E. C. Moderwell, with 250 cavalry, burned the fine bridge of the Charlotte and South Carolina Railroad, 1,150 feet in length and 50 feet above the water, over the Catawba. It was a blackened ruin in the space of thirty minutes. After a sharp skirmish with Confederate cavalry, the raiders returned to their main body at Dallas, with 325 prisoners, 200 horses, and two pieces of artillery. During the course of the raid the National cavalry captured 6,000 prisoners, twenty-five pieces of artillery taken in action, twenty-one abandoned, and a large number of small-arms.

In March, 1865, General Stoneman was brevetted major-general, United States army, and in 1871 was retired. He was governor of California in 1883–87. He died in Buffalo, N. Y., Sept. 5, 1894.

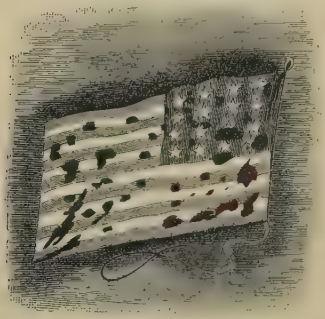
"Stonewall" Jackson. See JACKSON, THOMAS JONATHAN.

Stonington, BOMBARDMENT OF. On Aug. 9, 1814, Sir Thomas Hardy appeared off Stonington, Conn., with a squadron consisting of the *Ramillies*, seventy-four guns (flag-ship); *Pactolus*, forty-four guns; bomb-ship *Terror;* brig *Despatch*, twenty-two guns; and barges and launches. He anchored his little squadron within 2 miles of the town, and proceeded reluctantly to the execution of an order of Admiral Cochrane "to destroy the coast-towns and ravage the country." The depth of the water before Stonington would not allow the flag-ship to approach nearer the town than a mile and a half. Hardy sent a flag of truce ashore, with the following message to the selectmen, dated 5 P.M.: "Not wishing to destroy the unoffending inhabitants residing in the town of Stonington, one hour is granted them, from the receipt of this, to remove out of the town." "Will a flag be received from us in return?" inquired the magistrate of the bearer. "No arrangements can be made," he answered; and it was declared that it was the intention of the commodore to destroy the town totally. The magistrate



JEREMIAH HOLMES.

then said: "We will defend the place to the last extremity; should it be destroyed, we will perish in its ruins." Nearly all the inhabitants incapable of bearing arms left the place, and that evening the bomb-ship *Terror* and some launches rained shells and rockets upon the village without doing serious damage. During that bombardment some brave men in Stonington cast up a sort of redoubt on the extremity of the peninsula on which the city now stands, and placed upon it a



STONINGTON FLAG.

battery of two cannon—a 6-pounder and an 18-pounder — and from these they hurled solid balls upon the assailants with so much effect that the bomb-ship and her consorts withdrew to the larger vessels. Some men gathered at Stonington the next day, but they were of little service; but a few from Mystic, not far away, led by Capt. Jeremiah Holmes, flew to the aid of their neighbors, and did gallant service at the redoubt. Captain Holmes was a good gunner, and he took charge of the 18-pounder. With that piece he fought the British ships until his ammunition was spent, and no more could then be found. The borough seemed to be at the mercy of the invaders, and some timid citizens proposed to the captain to haul down the flag that floated over the battery and surrender. "No!" shouted the captain, "that flag shall never come down while I am alive!" When the wind died away, and the flag hung drooping by the side of the staff, the brave captain held it out at the point of a bayonet, that the British might see it. Several shots passed through it while it was in that position. To prevent some coward from hauling it down, the captain nailed the flag to the staff. But the old piece was not long silent. Some concealed powder was found. Double-shotting his cannon, the captain kept the British at bay until a competent force of militia, under General Isham, arrived to prevent the landing of the invaders. On the 12th, after a sharp bombardment, the discomfited squadron withdrew. Not a single life in the village had been lost, and only one person mortally wounded. Between fifty and sixty were slightly wounded, forty buildings were more or less injured, and two or three were nearly ruined.

Stono Ferry, BATTLE AT. After Prevost menaced Charleston, and, on account of the approach of Lincoln, retired to St. John's Island (April, 1779), both armies encamped within 30 miles of the South Carolina capital. The British cast up works at Stono Ferry, between the island and the main, and garrisoned them with 800 men, under Colonel Maitland. These were attacked (June 12, 1779) by about 1,200 of Lincoln's troops, in an attempt to dislodge the British. The contest was severe for more than an hour. Maitland was reinforced, and the Americans were compelled to retreat. When they fell back, the whole garrison sallied out to pursue, but the American light-horse covered the retreat so skilfully that all the wounded patriots were taken away by their friends. The Americans lost, in killed and wounded, 146, besides 155 missing; the British loss was somewhat less. Three days afterwards the British evacuated Stono Ferry, and retreated from island to island to Beaufort, on Port Royal Island, and thence by boats to Savannah. In a skirmish here, September, 1782, with a British foraging party, sent out of Charleston by General Leslie, Captain Wilmot, commanding the Americans, and accompanied by Kosciuszko, was killed. His was the last blood shed in the Revolutionary War.

Stony Creek, BATTLE AT. When Fort George was secured (see GEORGE, FORT), Chauncey left Dearborn, and returned to Sackett's Harbor. The latter sent General Winder (June 1, 1813), with about 800 troops, including Burn's dragoons and Archer's and Towson's artillery, in pursuit of retreating General Vincent, who

BATTLE-GROUND OF STONY CREEK.

was making his way towards Burlington Heights, on the western end of Lake Ontario. Winder took the lake-shore road. He pushed on to Twenty-mile Creek, where, hearing of reinforcements for Vincent at Burlington Heights, he prudently halted, and sent back to Dearborn for reinforcements. On the 5th he was joined by General Chandler, with about 500 men, who, being the senior officer, took the chief command. Then the whole body moved forward to Forty-mile Creek, where they rested, after driving off a patrol of militia, under Captain Merritt. Moving on, 10 miles farther, to Stony Creek, 7 miles from Vincent's camp, they encountered a British picket, whom they dispersed. The main body encamped at Stony Creek; and there, on the night of the 6th, they were surprised and fiercely attacked by Vincent. The night was intensely dark, and a severe battle was fought in the gloom. The British were repulsed, but, in the darkness and confusion, both of the American commanders were captured. Meanwhile General Vincent, having been thrown from his horse in the darkness, and being unable to find either his horse or his camp, wandered off in the woods, and for a while his friends supposed he was killed. Colonel Harvey, who took command of the British forces, hurried back to Burlington Heights with his notable prisoners. At the same time, the Americans, bereft of their generals, and fearing a renewal of the attack, retreated towards Niagara with equal precipitation. They were met by a relief-party, under Col. James Miller. Vincent was found in the woods next day, without hat or sword, and almost famished. On their way back, the Americans were threatened by a British fleet, under Sir James L. Yeo, on their left, and hostile savages on their right; but they drove away the former with hot shot, defied the latter and the local militia, and reached Fort George in safety. In the terrible night battle at Stony Creek the Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, 154 men; the British lost 178.

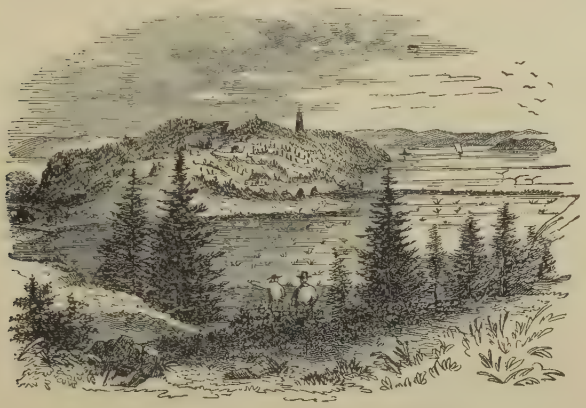
Stony Point, CAPTURE OF. The unfinished fort at Stony Point at the King's Ferry, on the Hudson, was seized by the British on May 30, 1779. The fort stood upon a rocky promontory, connected with the mainland by a tide-submerged causeway across a narrow marsh—an island at high-water. It was garrisoned by a regiment of foot, some grenadiers, and artillery, the whole commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Johnson. Gen. Anthony Wayne undertook to take the fort by storm; and at the

same time a force under Gen. Robert Howe was to attack the fort at Verplanck's Point. Several small British vessels of war were anchored in the river, within cannon-range of the forts. The latter had been enlarged and strengthened. Upon a complete surprise of the garrison depended the success of the undertaking. With the Massachusetts light infantry, Wayne marched through defiles in the mountains, and rendezvoused, at 8 P.M., a mile and a half from the fort. Silently they had gained the spot, killing every dog on the way. At midnight they moved on the fort. A portion of the troops crossed the causeway, and formed in two columns, the van of the right, consisting of 150 volunteers, led by Lieutenant-Colonel De Fleury; that of the left, 100 strong, also volunteers, commanded by Major Stewart. These composed the forlorn hope. They moved to the attack at two different points simultaneously, with unloaded muskets and fixed bayonets, followed by the two main divisions, the left led by General Wayne in person.

The Americans were undiscovered until within pistol-shot distance of the pickets on the height. The pickets fired several shots. The advanced guard pressed forward with the bayonet. The garrison were aroused by the roll of the drum and the cry "To arms! to arms!" Very soon musketry rattled and cannon roared in defence of the fort, but the Americans forced their way through every obstacle, until the

BATTLE OF STONY POINT.

van of each column met in the centre of the work. Wayne had been hit on the



VIEW OF STONY POINT FROM THE SOUTHWEST.

head and stunned by a musket-ball, but speedily recovered. The garrison soon surrendered, and not a life was taken after the flag was hauled down. Wayne wrote to Washington: "Stony Point, 16th July, 1779, 2 A.M. Dear General,—The fort and garrison, with Colonel Johnson, are ours. Our officers and men behaved like men determined to be free." At dawn the next day the guns of the fort were turned upon the works at Verplanck's Point, on the opposite side of the river, but Howe did not make the attack in time to dislodge the garrison. Lacking a force to man the fort properly, the ordnance and stores were conveyed to West Point, the works were destroyed, and the place evacuated on the night of July 18. The British repossessed themselves of Stony Point on the 20th. Congress gave the thanks of the nation to the brave actors in this event, and voted a gold medal to Wayne and a silver medal to Stewart and De Fleury. The capture of Stony Point was regarded as one of the most brilliant as well as the most important achievements of the war.

Storrs, Richard Salter, clergyman; born in Braintree, Mass., Aug. 21, 1821; graduated at Amherst College in 1839 and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1845, and in the same year was ordained in the Congregational Church; was pastor of the Church of the Pilgrims in Brooklyn from 1846 till his death, Aug. 5, 1900. He was one of the editors of the *Independent* in 1848–61, and became widely known as a writer and pulpit orator of rare ability. His publications include *An Oration Commemorative of President Lincoln; Early American Spirit and the Genesis of It; Declaration of Independence and the Effects of It; The Broader Range and Outlook of the Modern College Training;* and many works of a religious character.

MAJOR STEWART'S MEDAL.

Story, Joseph, jurist; born in Marblehead, Mass., Sept. 18, 1779; graduated at Harvard College in 1798; and was admitted to the bar in 1801, beginning practice at Salem. After serving in the State

legislature, he was elected to Congress in 1808. He was speaker of the Massachusetts Assembly in 1811, and from November of that year until his death was associate judge of the United States Supreme Court. From 1829 until his death he was also Dane professor of law in Harvard College. His published judicial works evince very extensive learning, clear exposition, and profound views of the legal science. His commentaries on the Constitution, entitled *Conflict of Laws*, and his written judgments in his circuit make 27 volumes; his judgments in the Supreme Court of the United States make an important part of 34 volumes more. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Sept. 10, 1845.

Story, WILLIAM WETMORE, sculptor; born in Salem, Mass., Feb. 12, 1819; son of Joseph Story; graduated at Harvard College in 1838 and at its law department in 1840, but gave little attention to practice, and in 1848 removed to Italy. He was United States commissioner on fine arts to the Paris exposition in 1879. His works include a statue of George Peabody and busts of James Russell Lowell, Theodore Parker, Josiah Quincy, etc., and his publications, *Life and Letters of Joseph Story; The American Question;* etc. He died in Vallombrosa, Italy, Oct. 7, 1895.

Stoughton, EDWIN WALLACE, diplomatist; born in Springfield, Vt., May 1, 1818; settled in New York in 1836, and was there admitted to the bar in 1840; became eminent through his connection with prominent trials, including the india-rubber patent cases of Charles Goodyear; the troubles of William M. Tweed, etc., and as one of the counsel before the electoral commission to argue Rutherford B. Hayes's right to the Presidency. He was minister to Russia in 1877–79. He died in New York City, Jan. 7, 1882.

Stoughton, WILLIAM, colonial governor; born in England, May 30, 1632; graduated at Harvard College in 1650; became a clergyman and attained eminence as a preacher; member of the council of Gov. Edmund Andros in 1686–89; lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts in 1692–1701; appointed chief-justice of the Superior Court of the colony in 1692, which office he held during the witchcraft agitation (see WITCHCRAFT, SALEM). He died in Dorchester, Mass., July 7, 1701.

Stowe, CALVIN ELLIS, clergyman; born in Natick, Mass., April 6, 1802; was graduated at Bowdoin College in 1824, where he was librarian and instructor for a year, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1828; became editor of the Boston *Recorder* in the following year; professor of Greek at Dartmouth College in 1830, and of sacred literature at Lane Theological Seminary in 1832 and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1852. Among his publications are *Reports on Elementary Education in Europe; The Criticism and Interpretation of the Sacred Scriptures; Origin and History of the Books of the Bible;* etc.; besides the translation of Jahn's *Hebrew Commonwealth* and Lowth's *Sacred Poetry of the Hebrews*, etc. He died in Hartford, Conn., Aug. 22, 1886.

Stowe, HARRIET ELIZABETH BEECHER, author; born in Litchfield, Conn., June 14,

HARRIET ELIZABETH BEECHER STOWE.

1811; sister of Henry Ward Beecher and wife of Rev. Calvin E. Stowe; was educated at Hartford, Conn., and taught school there and at Cincinnati. She married at the latter place when twenty-two years old, and afterwards lived in Andover, Hartford, and Brunswick, Me., also spending much time in Florida. Her most famous work, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, was first published in the Washington *National Era* in 1851. This book is credited with having a most powerful bearing on the Emancipation Proclamation of President Lincoln. Among her other successful works were *Dred; The Minister's Wooing; My Wife and I; We and Our Neighbors; Old Town Folks; Poganuc People; Agnes of Sorrento; Pink and White Tyranny*, etc. She died in Hartford, Conn., July 1, 1896.

Strachey, WILLIAM, colonist; sailed for Virginia with Sir Thomas Gates in 1609 on the *Sea Venture*, which was wrecked on the Bermuda Islands; arrived in Virginia in 1610 in a boat made from the wreck; and was secretary of the colony for three years. His publications include *A True Repertory of the Wracke and Redemption of Sir Thomas Gates upon and from the Islands of the Bermudas; Lawes Divine, Morall, and Martiall;* and *Historie of Travaile into Virginia Britannia.*

Strain, ISAAC G., naval officer; born in Roxbury, Pa., March 4, 1821. While yet a midshipman (1845), he led a small party to explore the interior of Brazil, and in 1848 explored the peninsula of California. In 1849 he crossed South America from Valparaiso to Buenos Ayres, and wrote an account of the journey, entitled *The Cordillera and Pampa, Mountain and Plain: Sketches of a Journey in Chile and the Argentine Provinces.* In 1850 he was assigned to the Mexican boundary commission, and afterwards (1854) led a famous expedition across the Isthmus of Darien, for an account of which see *Harper's Magazine*, 1856–57. In 1856, in the steamer *Arctic*, Lieutenant Strain ascertained by soundings the practicability of laying an ocean telegraphic cable between America and Europe. He died in Aspinwall, Colombia, May 14, 1857.

Stranahan, JAMES SAMUEL THOMAS, benefactor; born in Peterboro, N. Y., April 25, 1808; received a common school education and later studied engineering. In 1827–28 he visited the lake region of the Northwest with a view of opening trade with the Indians, which he abandoned and engaged in the wool business in Albany. In 1832 he took charge of a district in Oneida county for the purpose of founding a manufacturing town, and developed the present town of Florence, which he represented in the State Assembly in 1838–40. He removed to Newark, N. J., in 1840, and engaged in the building of railroads; and to Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1844. At first he was engaged in the business of railroad contractor, but later began his scheme of developing the water-front of Brooklyn, and succeeded in making the Atlantic basin one of the most perfect and commodious basins in the world. He was interested in the Union Ferry Company; member of Congress in 1854; of the newly organized Metropolitan police board in 1857–58; delegate to the Republican National Conventions in 1860 and 1864; president of the war fund committee of Brooklyn during the Civil War, and of the park board in 1860–82, during which period Prospect Park was laid out; and was also interested in the construction of the New York and Brooklyn Bridge. A bronze statue of "the first citizen of Brooklyn" was erected in Prospect Park in 1891. He was an advocate of the Greater New York City. He died in Saratoga, N. Y., Sept. 3, 1898.

Strategy, BOARD OF. See BOARD OF STRATEGY.

Stratemeyer, EDWARD, author; born in Elizabeth, N. J., Oct. 4, 1862; received a high-school education; engaged in writing for juvenile periodicals. He is the author of *Under Dewey at Manila; A Young Volunteer in Cuba; To Alaska for Gold; The Minute Boys of Lexington; American Boys' Life of William McKinley; American Boys' Life of Theodore Roosevelt*, etc.; and several series of patriotic stories.

Stratton, CHARLES HEYWOOD (popularly known as TOM THUMB), dwarf; born in Bridgeport, Conn., Jan. 4, 1838. The attention of P. T. Barnum, the showman, was first drawn to Stratton in November, 1842, when the midget was about four years old. He was then less than

2 feet high, weighed less than 16 lbs., was beautifully formed, a blond, with ruddy cheeks and mirthful eyes. Barnum introduced him to the public Dec. 8, 1842, by the name of Gen. Tom Thumb. He paid him $3 a week and expenses for himself and his mother for the first four weeks, after which he engaged him for a year at $7 a week, but, as the boy proved a great attraction, he soon raised the wages to $25 a week. In January, 1846, under a contract of $50 a week, Mr. Barnum took him to Europe, where he made a profitable tour through England, France, and Germany. He was presented to Queen Victoria, Louis Philippe, King William of Prussia, and other rulers, who treated him with marked kindness. The next year he returned to Europe for three months. On his return home he proved a greater attraction than ever, and Mr. Barnum said that in twelve days in Philadelphia he received $5,504.91; and in one day at Providence he took in $976.98. In 1857 he took Tom Thumb and Cordelia Howard, famous as little Eva in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, to Europe, where these children appeared in humorous characters, creating a furore and gathering a golden harvest. In 1862 Mr. Barnum introduced the two sister midgets, Lavinia and Minnie Warren, to the public, the former of whom young Stratton married before the end of the year in Grace Church, New York. The public reception at the Metropolitan Hotel, immediately following, was a notable affair. He died in Middleboro, Mass., July 15, 1883, and two years afterwards his widow married Count Primo Magri, an Italian dwarf.

Straus, Oscar Solomon, diplomatist; born in Otterberg, Rhenish Bavaria, Dec. 23, 1850; was brought to the United States in 1854; graduated at Columbia College in 1871, and at the Columbia Law School in 1873; United States minister to Turkey in 1887–89 and 1898–1901, and ambassador there in 1909–11; appointed a member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague in 1902; secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor in 1906–09; vice-president National Civic Federation. He is the author of *The Origin of the Republican Form of Government in the United States; Roger Williams, the Pioneer of Religious Liberty; The Development of Religious Liberty in the United States; Reform in the Consular Service; United States Doctrine of Citizenship; Our Foreign Diplomacy*, etc.

Strawbridge, Robert, pioneer; born in Drummer's Nave, Ireland; came to America in 1760; settled on Sam's Creek, Md., in 1765, and became interested in the extension of religion. Afterwards a Methodist society was organized through his efforts, and this was speedily followed by many others throughout the State. It has been disputed whether he or Philip Emburg organized the first Methodist society and built the first place of worship in America. He died in Maryland in 1781.

Street, Alfred Billings, author; born in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., Dec. 18, 1811; settled early in life in Monticello, N. Y., received an academic education; admitted to the bar and practised in Monticello; removed to Albany in 1839; and was State librarian in 1848–81. His publications include *The Burning of Schenectady, and Other Poems; The Council of Revision of the State of New York* (a history); *A Digest of Taxation in the United States; The Indian Pass*, etc. He died in Albany, N. Y., June 2, 1881.

Streeter, Alson J.; born in Rensselaer county, N. Y., in 1823; candidate of the National Labor party for President of the United States in 1888, and for United States Senator from Illinois in 1891. He died in Galesburg, Ill., Nov. 24, 1901.

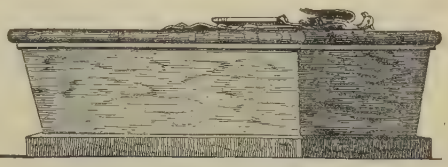
Streight, Abdel D., military officer; born in Wheeler, N. Y., June 17, 1829; recruited the 51st Indiana Volunteers in 1861; was commissioned colonel, and was attached to the Army of the Cumberland. On April 11, 1863, he left Nashville with unmounted troops on steamboats, to descend the Cumberland to Fort Donelson, at Dover, and thence to sweep around the rear of Bragg's army in southern Tennessee, cut off all his railway communications, and in every way to cripple the Confederates. Landing at Dover, Streight marched across to the Tennessee, at Fort Henry, where he remained until the boats went down the Ohio and up the Tennessee to that post. Landing at Eastport, he made a feint with General Dodge, to mask the real intention of his expedition. He

remained with Dodge until after the capture of Tuscumbia. Then, with only about 300 of his 1,800 men on foot, he started southward, and, soon turning eastward, hastened towards Rome and Atlanta, Ga. The former was the seat of extensive Confederate iron-works, and the latter the focus of several converging railways. At the same time Dodge struck off southward, swept through a portion of northern Alabama, destroying a large amount of Confederate property, and returned to Corinth. Streight and his raiders were pursued by Forrest and Roddy, and there was continual skirmishing and racing until they approached Rome, when Streight's ammunition and horses failed him, many of the poor beasts dying from sheer exhaustion. On May 3, when near Rome, the raiders, struck by their pursuers, were compelled to surrender. The captives were sent to Richmond and confined in Libby Prison, from which Streight and 100 officers escaped (February, 1864), by burrowing under the foundation walls of that building. Streight surrendered 1,365 men —Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois troops. After a short retirement he resumed command of his regiment; was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers, and served to the end of the war. In 1876 he was the unsuccessful candidate for governor of Indiana. He died near Indianapolis, Ind., May 27, 1892.

Stribling, CORNELIUS KINCHILOE, naval officer; born in Pendleton, S. C., Sept. 22, 1796; became a midshipman in 1812. He was assigned to the captured British vessel *Macedonian*, on her arrival at New York, Jan. 1, 1813; became a lieutenant in 1818, commander in 1840, captain in 1853, commodore in 1862, and rear-admiral on the retired list in 1866. During a long life, Admiral Stribling was ever active in the service, most of the time afloat. From 1850 to 1853 he was superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis; commanded the East India Squadron from 1859 to 1861; the Philadelphia Navy-yard, 1863–64; the Eastern Gulf Blockading Squadron, 1864–65, and was a member of the light-house board from 1867 to 1871. He died in Martinsburg, Va., Jan. 17, 1880.

Strickland, a Tory who was in confinement at Tappan, N. Y., in October, 1780. He was set at liberty on condition that he should perform the office of hangman to MAJOR ANDRE (*q. v.*), Oct 2, 1780.

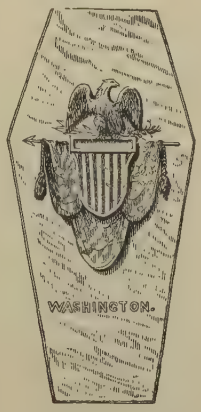
Strickland, WILLIAM, architect; born in Philadelphia, Pa., 1787. Among his works are the United States Bank, modelled after the Parthenon at Athens, the United States Mint, United States Cus-



THE SARCOPHAGUS OF WASHINGTON.

tom House, United States Navy Asylum, all in Philadelphia. He also built the Delaware Breakwater for the United States government, State House at Nashville, Tenn., etc.

In October, 1837, when George Washington's family vault was built, Mr. Strickland designed the sarcophagus of



THE LID.

George Washington, and also that of Martha Washington. He died in Nashville, Tenn., April 7, 1854.

Strickland, WILLIAM PETER, clergyman; born in Pittsburgh, Pa., Aug. 17, 1809; was ordained in the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1832; later entered the Presbyterian Church, and was pastor in Bridgehampton, L. I., in 1865–77. His publications include *Pioneers of the West; Old Mackinaw, or the Fortress of the Lakes and Its Surroundings; Life of Jacob*

Gruber, etc.; also edited the *Life of Peter Cartwright*. He died in Ocean Grove, N. J., July 15, 1884.

Strickland's Plain, BATTLE AT. At Horseneck, on the confines of Connecticut, a severe battle was fought, in 1644, between the Dutch and Indians, at a place called Strickland's Plain. Great numbers were slain on both sides, and for a century or more the graves of the dead were visible. The Dutch were victorious.

Strikes, a term applied to the concerted movements on the part of working-men to quit work unless their employers agree to some demand made by the men. The earliest strike of which there is a record in the United States occurred in Philadelphia in 1796, when 300 shoemakers struck for higher wages. The struggle was successful. In 1848 occurred a great strike of weavers at Fall River, and in 1877 occurred the first railroad strike. From 1888 to 1891 there were a great number of important strikes, including the street-car strike of New York City. In 1892 there were six great strikes, including the one at Homestead, Pa., during which ten men were killed, the militia was called out, and such destitution prevailed that the government ordered an investigation. In 1892 there were two great railroad strikes. The most notable strike in this country up to 1894 occurred that year among the railroad employés of the roads centring at Chicago. Fully 100,000 men were affected. The strike originated among the 3,000 employés of the Pullman Car Company, who demanded higher wages. Just as their strike was about to fail, the cause of the strikers was espoused by the American Railway Union, an organization numbering over 100,000 railroad men. These men refused to handle Pullman cars; rioting followed; and the militia being unable to cope with the strikers, the President ordered federal troops to restore order. The strike was a total failure. The great strike of the anthracite-coal miners in Pennsylvania in 1902 was for an increase of wages, an eight-hour work-day, a reduction of the size of a ton of mined coal, and a recognition of the union. The strike began May 15; a part of the State militia was called out on July 30, and all of it on October 5; various excesses were committed in the disturbed region; and a coal famine seemed imminent. President Roosevelt undertook to arrange a conference between the operators and representatives of the miners, and, failing in this, secured an agreement between them for the submission of the questions involved to an arbitration commission to be appointed by him. The miners resumed work on Oct. 23; and on March 21, 1903, its awards were rendered. The strike cost the railroads and the strikers $8,000,000.

In more recent years State legislation against boycotting, blacklisting, and conspiracy, and the ruling of courts against strikers and their methods, have lessened these industrial disturbances.

Statistics of 1881–1905.—The Bureau of Labor, Department of Commerce and Labor, collected a great mass of statistics concerning both strikes and lockouts in the United States during the period of 1881–1905. An analysis of the reports on strikes alone showed: Number of strikes, 36,757; establishments affected, 181,407; strikers involved, 6,728,048; and number of employés thrown out of work, 8,703,824. Lockouts alone numbered 1,546, affected 18,547 establishments, locked out 716,231 employés, and threw 825,610 employés out of work. Of total strikes, 47.94 per cent. succeeded, 15.28 per cent. partly succeeded, and 36.78 per cent. failed; and of total lockouts, 57.20 per cent. succeeded, 10.71 per cent. partly succeeded, and 32.09 per cent. failed. Of all strikes, 25,353, or 68.99 per cent., were ordered by labor organizations, these affecting 163,795 establishments; and 11,394, or 31.01 per cent., were not so ordered, these affecting 17,508 establishments. Strikes ordered by labor organizations involved 5,355,516 strikers and threw 6,735,273 employés out of work; and strikes not so ordered involved 1,365,067 strikers and threw 1,960,957 employés out of work. Strikes ordered by labor organizations succeeded in 49.48 per cent. of the establishments affected, partly succeeded in 15.87 per cent., and failed in 34.65 per cent.; and strikes not so ordered succeeded in 33.86 per cent. of the establishments, partly succeeded in 9.83 per cent., and failed in 56.31 per cent. In both strikes and lockouts the report notes twenty-eight causes or objects.

Sympathetic Strikes.—Of the various causes or objects of strikes, 1,377, involving 6,852 establishments and 277,736 strikers, and throwing 395,047 employés out of work, were in sympathy with strikers and employés in other establishments; and of the causes of lockouts, 74, involving 2,543 establishments and 100,270 locked-out employés, and throwing 105,271 employés out of work, were in sympathy with lockouts and against strikes elsewhere.

In a decision handed down by the United States Circuit Court of Appeals in Richmond, Va., March 12, 1910, the injunction issued by Judge Alston G. Dayton, of West Virginia, in the suit of the Hitchman Coal and Coke company against the United Mine Workers of America was sustained and made permanent. The company alleged that on April 1, 1906, a strike was inaugurated by its employés in response to a call issued by the United Mine Workers of America, who designed to compel coal operators in other sections to accede to their demands. The strike was therefore a sympathetic one, the firm in question having complied with all the terms and conditions laid down by the miners. The Appellate Court's decision was, that such strikes are unlawful. See BOYCOTTING; LABOR, INDUSTRIAL.

Stringer, SAMUEL, physician; born in Maryland in 1734; was appointed to the medical department of the Provincial army in 1755, and, at the close of the war, married and settled in Albany, N. Y. In 1775 he was appointed director-general of the hospitals in the Northern Department, under General Schuyler, and accompanied the troops that invaded Canada. He was dismissed from the service by Congress, Jan. 9, 1777, against the remonstrances of General Schuyler. After the war he became famous as a medical practitioner. He died in Albany, N. Y., July 11, 1817.

Stringham, SILAS HORTON, naval officer; born in Middletown N. Y., Nov. 7, 1798; entered the navy as midshipman at eleven years of age, and was lieutenant at sixteen. He was with Rodgers in the affray between the *President* and the *Little Belt*, and in 1815 was in Decatur's expedition against the Barbary States. In the war against Mexico, Captain Stringham, in command of the *Ohio*, took part in the bombardment of Vera Cruz. He was afterwards in command of different squadrons, and in 1861 was appointed flag-officer of the Atlantic Blockading

SILAS HORTON STRINGHAM.

Squadron and ordered to the *Minnesota* as his flag-ship. With her he went, as joint commander with Butler, with the land and naval expedition which captured the forts at Hatteras Inlet, Aug. 27–28. In September he was relieved at his own request; in July, 1862, was made a rear-admiral on the retired list. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Feb. 7, 1876.

Strong, CALEB, legislator; born in Northampton, Mass., Jan. 9, 1745; graduated at Harvard College in 1764; admitted to the bar in 1772; county attorney in 1776–80; delegate to the convention which drafted the national Constitution in 1787; United States Senator in 1789–96; governor of Massachusetts in 1800–07 and 1812–16. He died in Northampton, Mass., Nov. 7, 1819.

Strong, FRANK, educator; born in Venice, N. Y., Aug. 5, 1859; graduated at Yale College in 1884; superintendent of public schools in Lincoln, Neb., in 1892–95; lecturer on history at Yale College in 1897–99; president of the University of Oregon in 1899–1902; then chancellor of the University of Kansas. He is the author of *Life of Benjamin Franklin; A Forgotten Danger to the New England Colonies; Government of the American People*, etc.

Strong, GEORGE CROCKETT, military officer; born in Stockbridge, Vt., Oct. 16, 1832; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1857; given command of the Watervliet arsenal in May, 1861; led an expedition from Ship Island to Biloxi, Miss., in April, 1862; and another to Ponchatoula in September; promoted major-general of volunteers to date from July 18, 1863. While leading a column against Fort Wagner, July 18, 1863, he was fatally wounded; was removed to New York City, where he died, July 30. He was the author of *Cadet Life at West Point.*

Strong, JOHN, pioneer; born in Coventry, Conn., Aug. 16, 1738; built the first house owned by an English settler north of Massachusetts, on the east side of Lake Champlain. He was driven from his home by the invasion of Burgoyne in 1777; lived in Dorset, Vt., in 1777–83; represented that town in the legislature in 1779–82; returned to his old home in Addison, Vt., in 1783; was judge of the county court in 1785–1801; and member of the convention that ratified the national Constitution in 1791. He died in Addison, Vt., June 16, 1816.

Strong, JOSIAH, clergyman; born in Naperville, Ill., Jan. 19, 1847; graduated at Western Reserve College in 1869; studied at Lane Theological Seminary in 1869–71; organizer and president of the League for Social Service in 1898–1902, and president of the reorganized body, the American Institute for Social Service, from 1902. He is the author of *Our Country; The New Era; The Twentieth Century City; Religious Movements for Social Betterment; The Times and Young Men; The Challenge of the City, etc.*

Strong, WILLIAM, jurist; born in Somers, Conn., May 6, 1803; graduated at Yale College in 1828; admitted to the bar in 1832; member of Congress in 1847–51; and a justice of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania in 1857–68. He was appointed an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court in 1870, and served in that capacity till 1880, when he resigned on account of broken health. He died in Lake Minnewaska, N. Y., Aug. 19, 1895.

Stryker, WILLIAM SCUDDER, historian; born in Trenton, N. J., June 6, 1838; graduated at Princeton College in 1858; entered the National army in 1863 as major under Gen. Quincy A. Gillmore; participated in the capture of Morris Island and in the night assault on Fort Wagner; received the brevet of lieutenant-colonel; was adjutant-general of New Jersey from 1867 till his death, and president of the New Jersey Historical Society. His publications include *Officers and Men of New Jersey in the Revolutionary War, Officers and Men of New Jersey in the Civil War; The Battles of Trenton and Princeton; Washington's Reception by the People of New Jersey in 1789; General Maxwell's Brigade of the New Jersey Continental Line; The New Jersey Volunteers; The Continental Army at the Crossing of the Delaware River,* etc. He died in Trenton, N. J., Oct. 29, 1900.

Stuart, ALEXANDER HUGH HOLMES, statesman; born in Staunton, Va., April 2, 1807; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1828; member of the Virginia House of Delegates in 1836–38 and of Congress in 1841–43. He was appointed Secretary of the Interior in 1850, and held that post till 1853; opposed the secession of Virginia till the outbreak of hostilities; was elected to Congress in 1865, but was not seated. In 1868 he originated "the new movement" of the "committee of nine," through which his State was freed of military rule. He died in Staunton, Va., Feb. 12, 1891.

Stuart, CHARLES, author; born in Jamaica, W. I., about 1783; entered the British army as lieutenant in 1801; served in Madras in 1801–14; was promoted captain. He came to the United States about 1822, and spent several years in Utica, N. Y., where he became a strong abolitionist. He was the author of *Immediate Emancipation would be Safe and Profitable; Memoirs of Granville Sharp; Oneida and Oberlin; The Extirpation of Slavery in the United States,* etc. He died near Lake Simcoe, Canada, in 1865.

Stuart, CHARLES BEEBE, engineer; born in Chittenango Springs, N. Y., June 4, 1814; was State engineer of New York for several years; later, while in the employ of the United States government, finished the dry-docks in the Brooklyn

navy-yard; was engineer-in-chief of the United States navy in 1850–53. He was the author of *The Naval Dry-Docks of the United States; The Naval and Mail Steamers of the United States; Railroads of the United States and Canada; Water-works of the United States;* and *Civil and Military Engineers of America.* He died in Geneva, N. Y., Jan. 4, 1881.

Stuart, GILBERT CHARLES, artist; born in Narraganset, R. I., Dec. 3, 1755; was taken to Edinburgh when eighteen years of age by a Scotch artist named Alexander, but soon returned, and painted at Newport, Boston, and New York. When the Revolutionary War broke out, he went to London, received instructions from Benjamin West, and rose to eminence.

GILBERT CHARLES STUART.

In Paris he painted a portrait of Louis XIV. He returned to the United States in 1793, and painted, from life, portraits of Washington and many worthies of the Revolutionary period. After residing several years in Philadelphia and awhile in Washington, he made his permanent abode in Boston in 1806. Stuart's last work was a portrait of John Quincy Adams. He is regarded as one of the best portrait-painters America has ever produced. His two daughters, Mrs. Stebbins and Miss Jane Stuart, both meritorious artists, long followed the profession of their father. He died in Boston, Mass., July 27, 1828.

Stuart, JAMES, traveller; born in Dunearn, Scotland, in 1776; killed the son of Sir Alexander Boswell, Dr. Johnson's biographer, in a duel and then came to the United States, through which he travelled in 1828–30. He was the author of *Three Years in North America,* a book which was severely criticised by English papers antagonistic to republican institutions. This criticism elicited a reply from Stuart in a volume entitled *A Refutation of Aspersions on Stuart's "Three Years in North America."* He died in London, England, Nov. 3, 1849.

Stuart, JAMES EWELL BROWN, military officer; born in Patrick county, Va., Feb. 6, 1833; graduated at West Point in 1854 and entered the cavalry corps in 1855; served against the Cheyenne Indians and was wounded in 1857; left the army and joined the Confederates in 1861, receiving the commission of colonel of a Virginia cavalry regiment. He was one of the most daring of the cavalry officers in the Confederate army. At about the middle of June, 1862, he, with 1,500 cavalry and two pieces of artillery, rode completely around the Army of the Potomac. He attacked and dispersed two squadrons of National cavalry at Hanover Old Church, and, sweeping round to the White House, by Tunstall's Station, seized and burned fourteen wagons and two schooners, laden with forage, at Garlick's Landing, above the White House. He captured and carried away 165 prisoners, 260 mules and horses, rested three hours, and, during the night, crossed the Chickahominy on a hastily built bridge, and then leisurely returned to Richmond on the Charles City road. He was especially active on the flanks of McClellan's army, and in the next year during the Gettysburg campaign, though invariably defeated by the National cavalry. In Grant's campaign against Richmond, in 1864, he was mortally wounded in an encounter with Sheridan's cavalry near the Confederate capital, and died in Richmond, June 12, 1864.

Stuart, JOHN TODD, lawyer; born near Lexington, Ky., Nov. 10, 1807; graduated at Centre College, Kentucky, in 1826; admitted to the bar, and practised in Springfield, Ill.; member of the State legislature in 1832–36 and in 1838, and of the State senate in 1848–52, during which time he was active in settling the charter of the Illinois Central Railroad. He served as major in the Black Hawk War, where he became acquainted with Abraham Lincoln. He induced Mr. Lincoln to study law, assisted him in every possible way, and took him as a partner as soon as he was admitted to practice. He died in Springfield, Ill., Nov. 28, 1885.

Stuart, ROBERT, explorer; born in Callender, Scotland, Feb. 19, 1785; came to the United States in 1807; went to Oregon, where he was one of the founders of Astoria in 1810; later it became necessary to establish communication with the East. Stuart with five others volunteered to make the trial. After terrible dangers he arrived in St. Louis in May, 1813; was manager of the American Fur Company at Mackinaw in 1819–34; became treasurer of Michigan in the latter year, and settled in Detroit. He died in Chicago, Ill., Oct. 28, 1848.

Stung Serpent, Natchez Indian chief. In 1713 the Natchez killed several Frenchmen, whom Bienville was deputized to avenge. He was an interpreter to the French, and is said to have been their best friend among the Natchez Indians. He died in Louisiana about 1725.

Sturge, JOSEPH, author; born in Elverton, England, in 1793; was a member of the Society of Friends; and established himself as a corn-factor in Birmingham in 1820, acquiring a large fortune. He visited the West Indies in 1837 and the United States in 1841 to familiarize himself with the subject of slavery. He wrote *The West Indies in 1837* and *Visit to the United States in 1841.* He died in Birmingham, England, May 1, 1859.

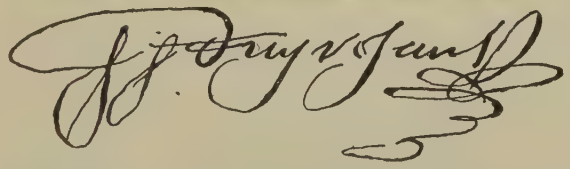
Sturgis, SAMUEL DAVIS, military officer; born in Shippensburg, Pa., June 11, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1846, entering the dragoons. His first service was in the war with Mexico, in which he was active. Before the battle of Buena Vista he was made prisoner, but was soon exchanged. For his energy in warfare with the Indians he was promoted to captain in 1855, and was in command of Fort Smith, Ark., until 1861, when all his officers resigned and joined the Confederates. He took an active and important part in the military service during the entire period of the Civil War—first with General Lyon in Missouri; then in command of the fortifications around Washington; in operations in Kentucky; as chief of cavalry in the Department of the Ohio; and in conflicts in Tennessee and Mississippi. He was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861, and was brevetted brigadier-general and major-general United States army, in March,

SAMUEL DAVIS STURGIS.

1865. At the battles of South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg, General Sturgis was in command of a division. He was retired in 1886. He died in St. Paul, Minn., Sept. 28, 1889.

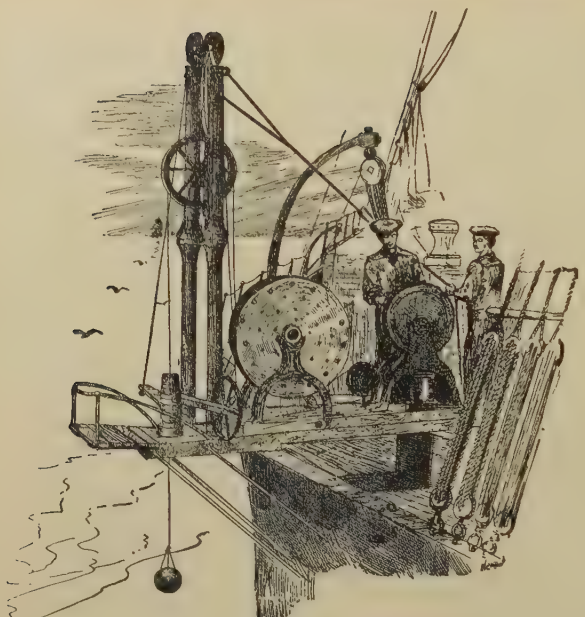
Stuyvesant, PETER, last Dutch governor of New York; born in Holland in 1602; was a brave soldier in the Dutch military service in the West Indies, and was director, or governor, of the colony of Curaçoa. He was a remarkably strong-headed official. He had lost a leg in battle in the West Indies, and, with a wooden one, bound with silver bands, he came to New Netherland as its director-general, or governor, late in May, 1647. He was received with joy as the successor of Kieft. He assumed great dignity; marched from the vessel to the fort with great

pomp, and assured the people that justice should rule. He began his administration by the assertion of vice-regal authority, and frowned upon every expression of republican sentiment, declaring it to be treason to petition against one's magistrate, "whether there be cause or not." He defended Kieft's conduct in rejecting the interference of the council of twelve (see KIEFT, WILLIAM), saying: "If any one, during my administration, shall appeal, I will make him a foot shorter and send the pieces to Holland, and let him appeal in that way."



Stuyvesant was an honest despot, and acted wisely. He set about needed reforms with great vigor, and into the community he infused much of his own energy. Enterprise took the place of indifference. He soon regulated the troubles between the Dutch on Manhattan and the Swedes on the Delaware (see NEW SWEDEN), made arrangements for adjusting difficulties with the Puritans in the East, and pacified the surrounding tribes of barbarians. In 1650 he arranged, at Hartford, the boundary in dispute between the English and Dutch possessions. Finding the finances of the province in a wretched condition, he perceived that taxation would be necessary, so he summoned representatives of the people to meet at New Amsterdam to provide for it. This germ of popular rule he tried to smother, but in vain, and there were angry controversies between the governor and the people during nearly the whole of his administration. A fort built by the Dutch on the Delaware in 1651 was captured by the Swedes in 1654. This caused Stuyvesant to lead an expedition in person against the Swedes the next year, which resulted in the subjugation of New Sweden. In 1653 a convention of two deputies from each village in New Netherland demanded certain political rights for the people, and gave the governor to understand that they should act independently of him. He stormed and threatened, but to no purpose. The spirit of resistance increased. Disturbed by encroachments of the English on the east, he remonstrated, but in vain, and was compelled to yield to the pressure of changing circumstances around him. Finally, when an English military and naval force came from England to assert the claim of the Duke of York to New Netherland, and revolutionary movements occurred on Long Island, his troubles tried him most severely; but his fortitude and obstinacy never forsook him.

When Col. Richard Nicolls appeared



SOUNDING MACHINE ON A CABLE STEAMER.

periors, in 1665, and, returning, spent the remainder of his days on his *bouwery*, or farm, on Manhattan Island, bordering on the East River. He died in August, 1682. His remains rest in St. Mark's church-yard, New York City. See NEW NETHERLAND; NEW YORK.

Submarine Boats. For more than 200 years inventors busied themselves with schemes for submarine navigation. The first American vessel for this purpose was contrived by Bushnell, of Connecticut, in 1775. Robert Fulton, while in Paris, in 1796, invented a submarine contrivance—the forerunner of the modern torpedo-boat—for discharging an explosive beneath the bottom of a ship, but it proved a failure. De-

with four ships-of-war and 450 soldiers lany, of Chicago, in 1859, constructed a in front of New Amsterdam (August, workable submarine, too complicated, 1664) and demanded the surrender of the province (Aug. 31), he found his alienated people willing to submit to English rule. Yet he stoutly refused the demand. Nicolls sent Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, with a letter to Stuyvesant, repeating his demand. He laid it before the council, who said, "Read it to the people." Stuyvesant would not. The council and magistrates insisted that he should, when the enraged governor, who had fairly earned the title of "Peter the Headstrong," unable to control his passion, tore the letter in pieces. Stuyvesant held out for a week, but on Sept. 8 he yielded, and the formal surrender took place. The governor went to Holland to report to his su-

"PAYING-OUT" THE CABLE.

however, for practical use. The *Intelligent Whale* appeared soon afterwards in Brooklyn, N. Y., only to be discarded as too cumbrous. The first effective submarine for war purposes was constructed by Goubet, of Paris, in 1882, and this was followed by the Nordenfelt boat, superior to all predecessors. George C. Baker built a submarine and operated it successfully on Lake Michigan in 1892; Simon Lake, of Baltimore, launched the *Argonaut*, a submarine wrecking boat, which made a voyage of 200 miles under and on the surface of Lake Champlain, in 1897; and John B. Holland built the first submarine torpedo-boat that met the requirements of the United States Navy Department, also in 1897 (see HOLLAND SUBMARINE TORPEDO-BOAT). Submarine torpedo-boats played a most important and destructive part in the operations of the belligerent fleets in the European war, having then their first real test under hostile conditions. The submarines in the United States navy were built chiefly for coast defense, but Congress in 1914 authorized the construction of three sea-going submarines, to be the largest ever built, and of twenty-three others of the size and type used in the European war.

Submarine Cables. The following tables set forth the entire system of submarine cables of the world, including those along the shores and in the bays, gulfs, and estuaries of rivers, but excepting those in lakes and the interior watercourses of continents. The list includes all cables operated by private companies, and in addition thereto under the name of each nation is given the list of cables operated by the government of that nation.

CABLES OPERATED BY PRIVATE COMPANIES.

Company.	Number of Cables.	Length of Cables in Nautical Miles.
Anglo-American Telegraph Co.	13	9,554
Transatlantic System — Valentia (Ireland) to Heart's Content (Newfoundland).		
Commercial Cable Co.	12	15,498
Transatlantic System — Waterville (Ireland) to Canso (Nova Scotia).		
Canso, N. S., to New York.		
Canso, N. S., to Rockport, Mass.		
Commercial Pacific Cable Co.	6	10,010
San Francisco to Manila		

CABLES OPERATED BY PRIVATE COMPANIES.—*Continued.*

Company.	Number of Cables.	Length of Cables in Nautical Miles.
Manila to Shanghai.		
De l'ils de Peel (Bonins) à Guam.		
Commercial Cable Co. of Cuba	1	1,285
Coney Island (New York) to Havana (Cuba).		
Direct United States Cable Co.	2	3,112
Ballinskellig's Bay (Ireland) to Halifax (Nova Scotia).		
Halifax, N. S., to Rye Beach, N. H.		
Western Union Telegraph Co.	12	7,357
Transatlantic System — Sennen Cove, near Penzance, England, to Dover Bay, near Canso, N. S.		
Dover Bay, N. S., to New York.		
Gulf of Mexico System.		
Compagnie Française des Câbles Telegraphiques	24	11,430
Brest (France) to Cape Cod, Mass		
Brest (France) to St. Pierre-Miq.		
St. Pierre to Cape Cod, Mass.		
Cape Cod, Mass., to New York.		
African Direct Telegraph Co.	9	3,025
Black Sea Telegraph Co.	1	336
Western Telegraph Co.	29	22,003
Carcavellos, near Lisbon (Portugal), to Madeira, to St. Vincent (Cape Verde Islands), to Pernambuco, Rio de Janeiro, Santos, Montevideo, Fayal (Azores) to St. Vincent (Cape Verde Islands). Ascension Island to Buenos Ayres.		
Central and South American Telegraph Co.	21	11,025
Compania Telegrafico-Telefonica del Plata.	1	28
Cuba Submarine Telegraph Co.	10	1,143
Direct Spanish Telegraph Co.	4	711
Direct West India Cable Co.	2	1,263
Bermuda-Turk's Island, and Turk's Island-Jamaica.		
Eastern and South African Telegraph Co.	17	10,490
Eastern Extension Australasia and China Telegraph Co.	35	23,983
Eastern Telegraph Co.	102	40,933
Systems as follows: Anglo-Spanish-Portuguese; Italo-Greek; Austro - Greek; Greek; Turko-Greek; Turkish; Egypto-European; Egyptian; Egypto-Indian; Cape Town to St. Helena; St. Helena to Ascension Island; Ascension Island to St. Vincent; Natal-Australia.		
System West of Malta.		
Europe and Azores Telegraph Co.	2	1,056
Compagnie Allemande des Câbles Transatlantiques	5	9,556
Borkum Island to Azores to Coney Island, N. Y.		
Borkum Island to Vigo, Spain.		
Grande Compagnie des Telégraphes du Nord	30	9,294
Cables in Europe and Asia.		
Deutsch-Niederländische Telegraphen gesellschaft	3	3,415
Menado (Célebés) to Japan (Caroline); Guam — (Mariannes) Shanghai.		
Deutsch - Sudamerikanische Telegraphen gesellschaft	2	3,906
Osteuropasische Telegraphen gesells.	1	185

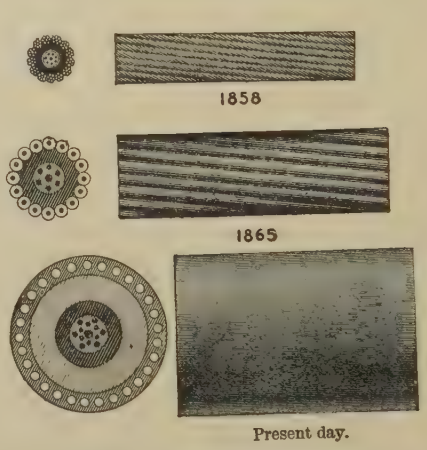
CABLES OPERATED BY PRIVATE COMPANIES—*Continued.*

Company.	Number of Cables.	Length of Cables in Nautical Miles.
Kilios (Constantinople) — Constantza (Roumania).		
Halifax and Bermudas Cable Co.	1	850
Indo-European Telegraph Co.	3	23
Mexican Telegraph Co.	5	2,821
River Plate Telegraph Co.	4	218
South American Cable Co.	2	1,968
United States and Haiti Telegraph and Cable Co.	1	1,391
West African Telegraph Co.	8	1,469
West Coast of America Telegraph Co.	7	1,979
West India & Panama Telegraph Co.	22	4,355
Grand total	397	215,684

CABLES OWNED BY NATIONS.

Nation.	Number of Cables.	Length of Cables in Nautical Miles.
Austria	40	419
Belgium	5	78
Denmark	147	424
France	77	11,343
Germany	101	2,982
Great Britain and Ireland	220	2,355
Greece	47	56
Holland	49	259
Italy	58	1,271
Norway	767	1,023
Portugal	6	120
Russia	32	739
Spain	24	3,128
Sweden	106	300
Switzerland	3	14
Turkey	24	367
Argentine Republic and Brazil	62	118
Australia and New Zealand	71	911
Bahama Islands	1	213
British America	2	398
British India	13	2,004
Portuguese Possessions in Africa	2	26
Japan	175	3,907
Nouvelle Calédonie	1	1
Netherlands Indies	16	2,773
Senegal, Africa	1	3
Siam	2	12
Indo-Chine Française	1	771
Pacific Cable Board (cables in the Pacific between British America and Australia)	5	7,837
Philippine Islands	26	1,032
Mexico	2	396
Venezuela	7	606
United States (Alaska)	13	2,145
Total	2,130	48,080

On Sept. 23, 1901, the commercial Pacific Company was incorporated in Albany, N. Y., for the purpose of laying a submarine cable from San Francisco to Manila, the line to touch Hawaii, Midway Island, and Guam. The first message was sent by President Roosevelt from Oyster Bay to Governor Taft at Manila on July 4, 1903. The entire length of the cable is 7,613 miles, the first part, from San Francisco to Hawaii, being 2,276 miles. The



TYPES OF CABLES USED SINCE 1858.

new cable connects at Manila with the present one, running thence to Japan, and also with the one running to China. This insures direct telegraphic communication between the United States, the Philippine Islands, China, and Japan without, as heretofore required, transit across Europe. Extensions to various systems are in active preparation, especially in the Orient.

Submarine Telegraph. See ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH.

Subsidies. National aids for the promotion of public conveniences in the United States have mostly taken, since 1838, the forms of land grants, special payments for the transportation of the mail by railroads and steamships, and grants of land and annual appropriations of money for the establishment and maintenance in the several States of institutions to further the dissemination of knowledge concerning the agricultural industry.

Railroads and agricultural colleges have so far profited most largely by this form of assistance. In the case of railroads, both national, State, and (for local connections) municipal governments have contributed vast aggregate sums of money in the form of gift, loan, or subscription to develop such communications. The

most conspicuous instance of this was that of the national government in aid of the three Pacific railroads, to which it gave some 33,000,000 acres of the public domain and a cash subsidy of more than $25,000 per mile.

In the popular sense the word "subsidy" as related to affairs of the United States, applies most particularly to the question of national grants to promote the building of American "bottoms," or vessels of strictly American ownership and management.

This takes us back to 1838. In that year the British government granted a subsidy of £81,000 per annum to the Cunard Steamship Line, which is believed to have been the first aid by any government to the building of vessels to sail under its flag. In 1840 an attempt was made to induce Congress to sanction an annual subsidy for the establishment of mail-carrying steamship lines, but it failed. In 1845 another attempt, in a somewhat different form, succeeded so far as to secure authority for the Postmaster-General to contract for the transportation of foreign mail in steamships sailing under the American flag. In 1847 Congress enacted that the Secretary of the Navy be required "to arrange for United States steamships to carry the mail from New York to Liverpool, to the West Indies and Gulf ports, and from Panama up the Pacific coast."

In 1852 the cost to the government for the foreign mail service had reached $2,000,000 per annum, and shortly afterwards Congress abolished all subsidies for this purpose. The agitation for subsidizing American steamship lines, however, soon broke out afresh, but it bore no fruitage, and it has developed in Congress frequently since.

An act of March 3, 1891, directed the Postmaster-General to pay first-class vessels $4 per mile run for carrying foreign mail, provided such vessels could be utilized as naval auxiliaries in cases of emergency. In the following year an arrangement was sanctioned with the International Navigation Company for a European mail service by the steamships *Paris* and *New York*, sailing under an American registry. These vessels, it may be recalled, were drafted into the naval service at the beginning of the Spanish-American war, being temporarily renamed the *Yale* and *Harvard* respectively.

Later attempts to secure the passage by Congress of a ship-subsidy bill were made in 1901–02, when a bill introduced by Senator William P. Frye got as far as to receive a favorable report from the Senate Committee on Commerce (Jan. 17, 1902), the session of Congress closing without further result; and again in 1907, when the House passed a modified bill, and Congress adjourned without definite action.

For some of the results of subsidizing railroads, see REPUDIATION OF STATE DEBTS.

Sub-Treasury, THE. The United States government first assumed control of its own funds in 1840, the money being deposited in two corporations known as Banks of the United States. Previous to that year public moneys were deposited in various State banks selected by the Secretary of the Treasury. The suspension of specie payments in May, 1837 (see SPECIE CIRCULAR, THE) not only led to a general panic, but shut up a large amount of national government money. In 1840, when an attempt was made to secure a renewal of the charter of the Bank of the United States, an attempt was also made to secure the necessary repeal of the independent treasury act. The latter measure passed both Houses, and became a law Aug. 13, 1841. The next Congress had a sufficient Whig majority in the Senate to overcome the Democratic majority in the House, and to defeat any effort to renew the sub-treasury system. For five years, therefore, after the repeal of the sub-treasury act, the treasury was managed practically at the discretion of the Secretary and without special regulations by law. The election of James K. Polk brought in a Congress largely Democratic in both branches. In 1846 a bill was introduced to renew the sub-treasury system. It passed both Houses, and became a law, Aug. 6. This act was practically the same as that of July 4, 1840, and has since remained in force with but little change.

On Feb. 25, 1863, the act creating a system of national banks became a law. This authorized the Secretary of the Treasury

to make specified depositories of the public moneys, except receipts from customs. The original sub-treasury acts provided for seven places of deposit—New York, Boston, Charleston, St. Louis, and the treasury at Washington, the first four being under the control of assistant treasurers. The status of the sub-treasury system in 1901 is clearly defined in the prescribed duties of the treasurer of the United States—*viz.*, ". . . is charged with the receipt and disbursement of all public moneys that may be deposited in the treasury at Washington, and the sub-treasuries at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, New Orleans, and San Francisco, and in the national bank United States depositories."

Sucker State, a cant name given to the State of Illinois. On the great prairies the crawfish makes holes and descends to the water beneath. The traveller across the great plains, in early times, provided himself with a long hollow reed, by which he sucked the pure water from these holes. From this circumstance the settlers on the prairies were called Suckers, a name afterwards applied to all the inhabitants of the State.

Sufferers' Lands. In the history of Connecticut, the designation of a tract of 500,000 acres of land at the western extremity of the Connecticut Western Reserve in Ohio, given by the General Assembly of Connecticut to the inhabitants of the towns in that State who had lost property in British incursions during the Revolutionary War, and to the heirs or assigns of those who had died. The total number of sufferers was reported at 1,870, and the aggregate losses about £161,500. The grant by the Assembly was made on May 11, 1792. In 1796 the sufferers were incorporated in Connecticut, and in 1803 in Ohio. The State of Connecticut subsequently sold the whole tract for $1,200,000. See CLEAVELAND, MOSES; GARFIELD, JAMES ABRAM.

Suffolk, OPERATIONS AT. In 1863 Gen. JOHN J. PECK (*q. v.*) was in command of 9,000 men at Suffolk, in southeastern Virginia, where he had erected strong defensive works. Believing he was preparing there a base of operations for a movement against Richmond, in conjunction with the Army of the Potomac, the Confederate authorities took countervailing measures, and in February, 1863, Gen. James Longstreet was placed in command of the Confederate forces in that region, then fully 30,000 strong. Early in April Longstreet made a descent upon Peck with 28,000 men. He thought his movement was so well masked that he should take the Nationals by surprise. He drove in their pickets; but Peck, aware of his expedition, was ready for him. He had been reinforced by a division under General Getty, making the number of his effective men 14,000. The Confederates were foiled; and in May, 1863, Longstreet abandoned the enterprise and retreated, pursued some distance by Generals Corcoran and Dodge and Colonel Foster. The siege of Suffolk had continued for several weeks before the final dash upon it, the object being the recovery of the whole country south of the James River, extending to Albemarle Sound, in North Carolina; the ports of Norfolk and Portsmouth; 80 miles of new railroad iron; the equipment of two roads; and the capture of all the United States forces and property, with some thousands of contrabands. The services of the troops under Peck were of vast importance. Besides preserving that region from seizure, they kept Longstreet and a large Confederate force from joining Lee.

Suffolk Resolutions. At a meeting of delegates of every town in Suffolk county, Mass., on Sept. 9, 1774, nineteen bold resolutions, prefaced by a long preamble, were adopted and laid before the Continental Congress. They declared, 1. The loyalty of the people to the King; 2. That it was their duty to defend and preserve their civil and religious liberties; 3. That the late laws of Parliament concerning the people of Massachusetts were gross infractions of popular rights; 4. That no obedience was due to either or any part of the acts complained of; 5. That the act for the appointment of judicial officers by the Crown was unconstitutional, and therefore not to be regarded; 6. That justices disqualified by the late acts should be supported in the continued performance of their duties, and that creditors ought to be lenient during the confusion caused by the obnoxious laws; 7.

That they recommend all collectors of taxes to retain the moneys in their hands until action should be had by arbitration or otherwise; 8. That the mandamus counsellors be recommended forthwith to resign, or be regarded as public enemies; 9. That the erection of fortifications on Boston Neck be condemned; 10. Also the Quebec Act as dangerous to the Protestant religion; 11. That the people be recommended to prepare for war; 12. That the people should act only on the defensive as long as possible; 13. That the proposition to transport beyond the sea for trial be condemned; 14. That non-intercourse in trade with Great Britain be established; 15. That domestic arts and manufactures be encouraged; 16. That a Provincial Congress was necessary and should be chosen; 17. That obedience to the Continental Congress should be given; 18. That all riots and violence be avoided; and, 19. That provision be made for unity of action, in case hostilities should be begun at any place. These resolves formed the basis of important action in the Continental Congress.

Suffrage Laws in the United States. See ELECTIVE FRANCHISE.

Suffrage, EXCLUSIONS FROM. See ELECTIVE FRANCHISE.

Suffrage, WOMAN. In 1915 women possessed the right of full suffrage at all elections in the United States upon equal terms with men in eleven States and one Territory; limited suffrage in twenty-two States; and suffrage restricted to offices not created by the State Constitution in one State.

The first State to extend the suffrage to women on an equality with men was New Jersey, whose Constitution, adopted in 1776, granted that privilege. An act was passed in 1793 "to regulate elections"; and the elective franchise was restricted to "white male citizens" by act of Nov. 16, 1807.

Kentucky claims second place in the chronology of the woman-suffrage movement, having, in 1838, provided that widows with children of school age might vote on questions relating to public education. Kansas, in 1861, gave women an unrestricted school suffrage; and Wyoming in 1869 was the first State to grant and maintain full suffrage.

The history of the movement's accomplishments up to the summer of 1915 may be epitomized as follows:

New Jersey, first full grant 1776; repealed, 1807.
Kentucky, first restricted (school) grant, 1838.
Kansas, unrestricted school.....1861
Wyoming, first full maintained...1869
Michigan, school.....1875
Minnesota, school.....1875
Colorado, school.....1876
New Hampshire, school.....1878
Oregon, school.....1878
Massachusetts, school.....1879
New York, school.....1880
Vermont, school.....1880
Nebraska, school.....1883
Kansas, municipal.....1887
North Dakota, school.....1887
Montana, school and tax-paying..1887
South Dakota, school.....1887
Arizona, school.....1887
New Jersey, school.....1887
Illinois, school.....1891
Connecticut, school.....1893
Colorado, full.....1893
Ohio, school.....1894
Iowa, bond.....1894
Idaho, full.....1896
Utah, full.....1896
Minnesota, library trustees.....1898
Delaware, school and tax-paying..1898
Louisiana, tax-paying.....1898
Wisconsin, school.....1900
New York, tax-paying.....1901
Kansas, bond.....1903
Oklahoma, school.....1907
Michigan, tax-paying.....1908
Washington, full.....1910
New Mexico, school.....1910
New York, bond.....1910
California, full.....1911
Arizona, full.....1912
Kansas, full.....1912
Oregon, full.....1912
Alaska, full.....1913
Illinois, restricted.....1913
Nevada, full.....1914
Montana, full.....1914

In the elections of Nov. 3, 1914, woman-suffrage amendments to State Constitutions were defeated in Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, and South Dakota.

In France women engaged in commerce have the right to vote for judges of the Tribunal of Commerce. Women have some voting privileges in Cape Colony.

The International Woman Suffrage Alliance is composed of National Woman Suffrage Associations composed of twenty-two nations. Its officers are: president, Carrie Chapman Catt, New York; vice-president, Millicent Garrett Fawcett, London; second vice-president, Annie Fuhrlyelm, Finland; treasurer, Mrs. Stanton Coit, London; secretaries—first, Mrs. Annie Lundin, Germany; second, Miss Martina Kramers, Holland; Miss Signe Bergman, Sweden.

The officers of the National American Woman Suffrage Association are: Rev. Anna Howard Shaw, Moylan, Pa., president; Catharine W. McCulloch, Evanston, Ill., first vice-president; Kate M. Gordon, New Orleans, La., second vice-president; Mary W. Dennett, 505 Fifth Avenue, New York City, corresponding secretary; Mrs. Ella S. Stewart, Chicago, recording secretary; Jessie Ashley, 505 Fifth Avenue, New York City, treasurer; Miss Laura Clay, Lexington, Ky., first auditor; Alice Stone Blackwell, Dorchester, Mass., second auditor. National Headquarters, 505 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

The New York State Association Opposed to Woman Suffrage has its central office in New York City. Its officers are as follows: Mrs. Francis N. Scott, president; Mrs. Fritz Achelis, first vice-president; Mrs. Elihu Root, Mrs. Richard Watson Gilder, Mrs. William A. Putnam, Mrs. Robert McVickar, Mrs. George D. Miller, and Mrs. William P. Northrup, vice-presidents; Mrs. Francis S. Bangs, treasurer; Mrs. George Phillips, secretary; Room 819, Engineering Societies Building, 29 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York City. There are also organizations in Massachusetts, Illinois, Oregon, Iowa, Washington, and California. These are founded with the object of testifying to legislative committees and through the medium of the public press that the opposition to woman suffrage is based upon what is claimed to be "the intelligent conviction of the majority of representative women in all lines of social, industrial, and domestic progress."

CUTTING SUGAR-CANE IN THE SOUTH.

Sugar (*Saccharum officinarum*) is supposed to have been known to the ancient Jews. Found in India by Nearchus, ad-

miral of Alexander, 325 B.C. An Oriental nation in alliance with Pompey used the juice of the cane as a common beverage. It was prescribed as a medicine by Galen, second century. Brought into Europe from Asia, 625 A.D.; in large quantities, 1150. Attempted to be cultivated in Italy, not succeeding, the Portuguese and Spaniards carried it to America about 1510.

Sugar in the United States.—Sugar-cane first grown in part of territory now constituting the United States, 1751; first American sugar-mill built near New Orleans, 1758; sugar first manufactured from sorghum, 1882. A bounty was granted by Congress from July 1, 1891, to July 1, 1905, of 2 cents a pound on sugar not less than 90° by the polariscope from cane, beets, sorghum, and maple produced in the United States, and testing less than 90° and not less than 80°, 1¾ cents, Oct. 1, 1890.

Including imports and domestic production, about 7,500,000,000 pounds of sugar were consumed in the United States in the year ended June 30, 1910. The average per capita consumption, 82 pounds, exceeded that of any preceding year. The production of cane-sugar in the United States was 750,000,000 pounds, and of beet-sugar, 1,025,000,000 pounds, the highest record of any preceding year. Of the total production, the Hawaiian Islands furnished 1,111,000,000 pounds; Porto Rico, 569,000,000; and the Philippine Islands, 176,000,000; in each case more than in any previous year. The imports from foreign countries aggregated 3,918,000,000 pounds, a reduction in a year of 188,000,000 pounds. Foreign countries supplied 51 per cent. of the sugar consumed, as compared with an average of 75 per cent. in several preceding years. In the period of 1899–1910 the production of beet-sugar increased from 73,000,000 pounds to 1,025,000,000 pounds, an increase of 952,000,000 pounds.

Cane-Sugar.—According to a special report of the Bureau of the Census on *Cane and Beet Sugar* (1911), there were in the United States 192 cane-sugar manufacturing establishments, operated on a capital of $36,262,000; using materials that cost $20,336,000; and having products valued at $29,351,000. Formerly sugar was manufactured from cane in a number of States, but now it is confined almost entirely to the State of Louisiana (188 establishments), with four establishments in Texas. The quantity of cane treated in the mills was 4,628,200 tons, and of the value of products, that of sugar constituted 89 per cent. of the total, molasses 9.6 per cent., and sirup 1.4 per cent.

Beet-Sugar.—Sixty-five establishments were engaged in the manufacture of beet-sugar, which now constitutes a large proportion of the total sugar production of the world. The acreage planted in beets was 416,000, an increase of 207 per cent. in ten years; and the production, 3,965,300 tons, an increase of 399 per cent. The following table shows the quantities and values of the different manufactured products by States:

State.	Establishments.	PRODUCTS.								
		Total Value.	Sugar.				Molasses.		All other Products (Value).
			Granulated.		Raw.				
			Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	Gallons.	Value.	
United States	65	$48,122,000	496,800	$45,646,000	4,900	$292,000	20,812,800	$1,129,000	$1,055,000
California	10	11,981,000	126,600	11,717,000	200	11,000	2,135,800	74,000	178,000
Colorado	16	13,729,000	147,000	13,011,000	1,600	114,000	7,669,200	381,000	223,000
Michigan	16	10,477,000	103,900	9,757,000	600	41,000	5,016,700	337,000	342,000
Wisconsin	4	1,366,000	13,000	1,249,000	. . .	. . . . .	832,400	68,000	50,000
All other states*	19	10,569,000	106,300	9,912,000	2,500	126,000	5,158,700	269,000	262,000

* Includes establishments distributed as follows: Arizona, 1; Idaho, 3; Illinois, 1; Iowa, 1; Kansas, 1; Minnesota, 1; Montana, 1; Nebraska, 1; New York, 1; Ohio, 1; Oregon, 1; Utah, 5; Washington, 1. In 1904—Idaho, 3; Minnesota, 1; Nebraska, 3; New York, 1; Ohio, 1; Oregon, 1; Utah, 4; Washington, 1. In 1899—Colorado, 1; Illinois, 1; Minnesota, 1; Nebraska, 3; New Mexico, 1; New York, 2; Oregon, 1; Utah, 3; and Washington, 1.

A SUGAR-CANE MILL.

The following was the production of sugar in 1908–09 by the principal sugar-growing countries, in tons of 2,240 lbs.:

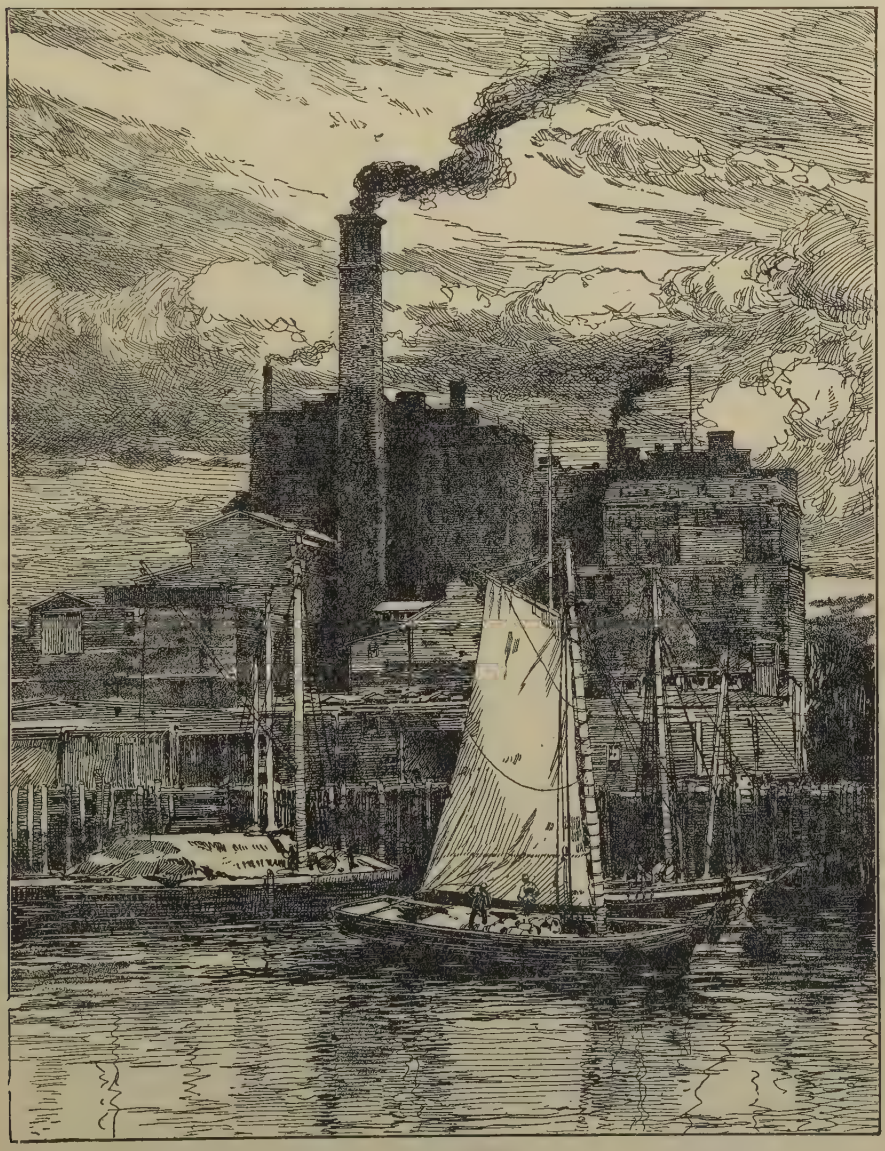
Countries.	Cane-sugar.	Countries.	Cane-sugar.	Countries.	Beet-sugar.
Louisiana	350,000	Java	1,241,885	United States	384,010
Porto Rico	245,000	Hawaii	475,000	Germany	2,080,000
Cuba	1,485,000	Queensland	151,554	Austria	1,398,000
British West Indies	90,000	Mauritius	195,000	France	802,000
Haiti and S. Domingo	80,000	Demerara	117,176	Russia	1,265,000
Peru	150,000	Argentina	162,479	Belgium	258,000
Brazil	248,000	Philippines	150,000	Holland	214,000

COUNTRIES IMPORTING SUGAR

	Pounds.
Australia	223,324,304
British India	1,254,130,976
Canada	522,558,227
Chile	153,624,041
China	743,704,800
Denmark	84,324,407
England	3,663,325,456
Egypt	108,403,341
Finland	97,575,050
France	238,557,561
Japan	298,867,600
Netherlands	156,036,526
New Zealand	116,441,136
Norway	98,677,191
Persia	201,246,499
Singapore	125,336,667
Switzerland	201,421,100
Turkey	302,621,963
United States	3,816,896,855
All Other Countries	792,612,747

Sugar Act. The popular name of an act of the British Parliament, officially known as the molasses act. In 1733 the British government laid a prohibitive duty on all sugar and molasses imported into North America from the islands of France, for the purpose of compelling the people of New England particularly to purchase their sugar and molasses from the planters in the English West Indies. In 1763, when Lord Grenville became prime minister, he introduced into Parliament two measures of vast importance to the American colonists. The first was the revival of the old molasses act; the second was the notorious STAMP ACT (*q. v.*). The immediate effects of the reinforcement of the molasses act were seen in the trade relations between the New England colonies and the French West Indies. The New England people depended largely upon the products of their fisheries, and

a considerable portion found a ready market in the French West Indies. Those possessions in turn depended upon the molasses raised therein, and the French government, in order to force a market for the sugar, forbade the planters paying for the fish with anything except molasses. The trade between the New England colonies and the French West Indies, accordingly, becoming a matter of great importance to the people of both sections, and the reinforcements of the original act could have but two results: either the New-Englanders would have to pay the



A SUGAR REFINERY.

exorbitant duty on the French West Indies molasses, or have it seized without ceremony or compensation.

Sugar-house Prison. The principal place of imprisonment within the limits of New York City during the British occupation. The sugar-house was a brick building five stories high, near the Old Middle Dutch Church. Here were confined the prisoners taken on Long Island and elsewhere, and many patriotic citizens. Owing to improper food, clothing, and medical attendance the prisoners died by the thousands. It was the pitiable condition of these unfortunate heroes that led Washington to refuse to regard them as fair subjects for exchange, because, as he wrote to Lord Howe, "You give us only the dead or dying for our well-fed and healthy prisoners." The prison-ship JERSEY (*q. v.*) was anchored in Wallabout Bay. Over 11,000 men died in this hulk. A monument to their memory was erected in Brooklyn, N. Y. Many thousands died in the other prisons in New York City.

Sugar Trust. See TRUSTS.

Sullivan, FORT, the former name of Fort Moultrie. On the morning of July 30, 1776, General Lee reviewed the garrison of Fort Sullivan, and bestowed on them marked praise for their valor and fortitude in its defence. At the same time Mrs. Susanna Elliot, young and beautiful, with the women of Charleston, stepped forth and presented to Moultrie's regiment a pair of silken colors, one of blue, the other of crimson, both richly embroidered by their own hands. In a low, sweet voice, Mrs. Elliot said: "Your gallant behavior in defence of liberty and your country entitle you to the highest honors. Accept these two standards as a reward justly due to your regiment; and I make not the least doubt, under Heaven's protection, you will stand by them as long as they can wave in the air of liberty." On receiving them Moultrie said: "The colors shall be honorably supported, and shall never be tarnished." On the morning of July 4 Governor Rutledge visited the garrison, and in the name of South Carolina thanked them; and to Sergeant Jasper he offered a lieutenant's commission and a sword. The sergeant refused the former, but accepted the latter. The fort on Sullivan's Island which Moultrie had so gallantly defended was renamed Fort Moultrie.

Sullivan, JAMES, lawyer; born in Berwick, Me., April 22, 1744; began practice in Biddeford in 1770; member of the Massachusetts constitutional convention in 1779–80; attorney-general of Massachusetts in 1790–1807; elected governor in 1807 and 1808. His publications include *Observations on the Government of the United States; History of the District of Maine; History of Land-Titles in Massachusetts; Dissertation on the Constitutional Liberty of the Press; Correspondence with Colonel Pickering; History of the Penobscot Indians*, in the *Massachusetts Historical Collections*, etc. He died in Boston, Mass., Dec. 10, 1808.

Sullivan, JOHN, military officer; born in Berwick, Me., Feb. 17, 1740; was a lawyer, an earnest patriot, and a member of the first Continental Congress. In December, 1774, he, with John Langdon, led a force against Fort William and Mary, near Portsmouth, and took from it 100 barrels of gunpowder, fifteen cannon, small-arms, and stores. In June, 1775, he was appointed one of the brigadier-generals of the Continental army, and commanded on Winter Hill in the

JOHN SULLIVAN.

siege of Boston. After the evacuation in March, 1776, he was sent with troops to reinforce the army in Canada, of which he took command on the death of General Thomas, June 2, 1776, and soon afterwards exhibited great skill in effecting a retreat from that province. On the arrival of Gates to succeed Sullivan, the latter joined the army under Washington at New York, and at the battle of Long Island, in August, he was made prisoner. He was soon exchanged for General Prescott, and, joining Washington in Westchester county, accompanied him in his retreat across New Jersey. On the capture of Lee, he took command of the troops under that officer, and performed good service at Trenton and Princeton. In August, 1777, he made an unsuccessful attack on the British on Staten Island, and then joining Washington, commanded the right wing in the battle of Brandywine. He skilfully led in the battle of Germantown, and would have driven the British from Rhode Island, or captured them, in August, 1778, had not D'Estaing failed to co-operate with him. After a sharp battle, he withdrew with slight loss. The atrocities of the Indians (especially the Senecas, the most westerly of the Six Nations) in the Wyoming Valley, and their continual raids upon the frontier settlements in New York, caused a retaliatory expedition to be made into their country in the summer of 1779. It was led by General Sullivan, who was instructed to "chastise and humble the Six Nations." He collected troops in the Wyoming Valley, and marched (July 31), up the Susquehanna with about 3,000 soldiers. At Tioga Point he met (Aug. 22) Gen. James Clinton, who had come from the Mohawk Valley with about 1,600 men to join him. On the 29th they fell upon some Tories and Indians who were pretty strongly fortified at Chemung (now Elmira), and dispersed them. Before they could rally, Sullivan had pushed onward to the Genesee River, when he began the work of destruction. In the course of three weeks he destroyed forty Indian villages and a vast amount of food growing in fields and gardens. In fields and granaries 160,000 bushels of corn were wasted

GENERAL SULLIVAN'S HOME.

by fire. In the reaction they had greater strength, and by it the fires of deeper hatred of the white people were kindled far and wide among the Indian tribes. After this campaign Sullivan resigned his commission on account of his shattered health, and received the thanks of Congress. He took a seat in Congress late in 1780, and aided in suppressing the mutiny in the Pennsylvania line. From 1782 to 1786 he was attorney-general of New Hampshire, and from 1786 to 1789 was president of that commonwealth. From 1789 until his death he was United States judge of New Hampshire. He died in Durham, N. H., Jan. 23, 1795.

Sully, ALFRED, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1821; son of Thomas Sully, the emigrant painter; graduated at West Point in 1841; served in the Seminole War and in the war against Mexico. He was in the principal battles of the Army of the Potomac in Maryland and Virginia, and in the battle of Chancellorsville. He died in Fort Vancouver, Washington Territory, April 17, 1879.

Sully, THOMAS, painter; born in Horncastle, England, June 8, 1783; came to the United States with his parents, who were players, when he was ten years of age. At fifteen he began to paint at Charleston, S. C., and at twenty established himself as a portrait-painter at Richmond, Va. He went to Philadelphia in 1809, where he resided and practised his profession until his death, Nov. 5, 1872. During a visit to England (1837–38) he painted a portrait of Queen Victoria. His picture of *Washington Crossing the Delaware* is in the possession of the Boston Museum.

"Sultana" Disaster. The *Sultana* was the last boat that attempted to pass up the Mississippi before the Confederate ram *Webb* came out of Red River, in April, 1865. At Vicksburg the boat took on a lot of paroled prisoners, comprising thirty-three officers and 1,833 men. On the night of April 27 the boilers exploded and the steamer sank. Seventeen officers and 1,084 men were lost. Besides the soldiers, the *Sultana* carried 70 cabin passengers and a crew of 85, of whom about 137 were lost, making a total loss of about 1,238 persons.

Sulu, or Jolo, Archipelago, an archipelago occupying the centre of the southern line of the Philippine Archipelago, comprising 188 islands stretching s. w. between Mindanao and Borneo; area, 1,029 square miles. Pop. (1903), 65,132; capital, Sulu, on island of the same name; race, Moro; language, Moro-Suluano and Moro-Somal.

Summerfield, JOHN, clergyman; born in Preston, England, Jan. 31, 1798; was educated at a Moravian school; came to New York in 1821, and was admitted to the Methodist conference of that State. He preached in Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington in 1822, his eloquence arousing enthusiasm. He went to France in 1822, and returned to the United States in 1824 and preached in the large cities. He was the founder of the American Tract Society. He died in New York City, June 13, 1825.

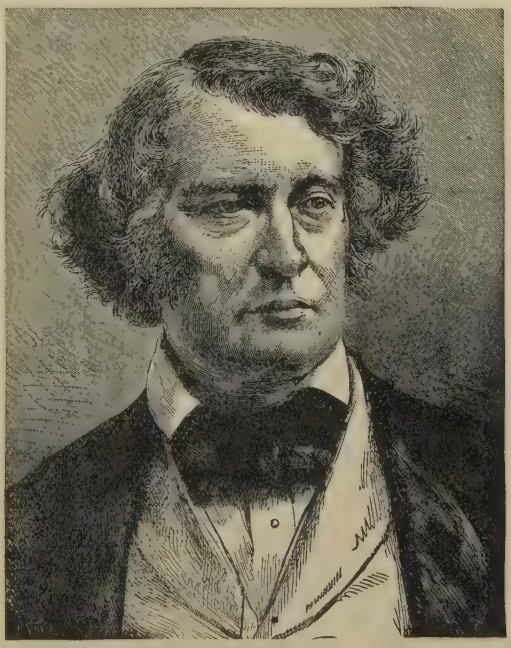
Summit Point (VA.), BATTLE AT. During Sheridan's Shenandoah campaign he encountered a part of General Early's troops at this point. The Confederates inflicted a loss of over 250 men, mostly of the Sixth Army Corps under General Getty.

SUMNER, CHARLES

Sumner, CHARLES, statesman; born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 6, 1811; graduated at Harvard College in 1830. Appointed a reporter of the United States Circuit Court, he published *Sumner's Reports* (3 volumes), containing the decisions of Judge Story. He also edited the *American Jurist*, a quarterly law magazine of high reputation. For three winters, while Judge Story was absent at Washington, Mr. Sumner was lecturer to the Law School at Harvard, and his familiar theme was constitutional law and the law of nations. In 1837 he visited Europe, travelled extensively on the Continent, and resided nearly a year in England. Bearing a complimentary letter to the latter country from Judge Story, he was cordially received, and was introduced by statesmen on the floor of the House of Parliament. In 1840 he re-

turned to Boston, and in 1841–46 he published an edition with annotations of *Vesey's Reports* (20 volumes).

His first participation in active politics was in 1845. On July 4 he delivered an oration before the municipal authorities of Boston on the *True Grandeur of Nations*. At that time war with Mexico was impending. He denounced the war system as a means for determining international questions, and declared that it ought to be superseded by peaceful arbitration. This oration attracted much attention, led to much controversy, and was widely circulated in America and Europe. This was followed by many public addresses on kindred themes, and his reputation as an orator, suddenly created, made them widely and thoughtfully read. He then first appeared as a public opponent of slavery, and opposed the annexation of Texas because he believed it was intended to extend the boundaries of that labor system in our country. From that day until his death Sumner was an earnest advocate of the emancipation of the slaves. In 1846 he addressed the Whig State convention of Massachusetts on *The Anti-slavery Doctrine of the Whig Party*, and soon afterwards published a letter of rebuke to Robert C. Winthrop, Representative in Congress from Boston, for voting in favor of war with Mexico. He finally left the Whig party and joined the Free-soilers (see FREE-SOIL PARTY), supporting Van Buren for President in 1840.



CHARLES SUMNER.

In April, 1851, Mr. Sumner was elected by a coalition of Democrats and Free-soilers in the Massachusetts legislature to the United States Senate, to fill the place vacated by Daniel Webster. He took his seat Dec. 1, 1851, and kept it by successive re-elections until his death. He was recognized as the leader in all anti-slavery movements in the Senate, and his political action in the matter was guided by the formula "Freedom is national, Slavery is sectional." He took a very active part in the debates on the Kansas questions. His speech on *The Crime against Kansas* took two days in its delivery, May 19 and 20, 1856 (see page 460). Some passages in it greatly incensed the members of Congress from South Carolina, and one of them, PRESTON S. BROOKS (*q.v.*), assaulted Senator Sumner while he was writing at his desk in the Senate chamber on May 26. Brooks approached Sumner with a gutta-percha cane and dealt him such a blow on the head that he fell insensible upon the floor. From this blow he never fully recovered. Brooks was rewarded for this act by his constituents with the present of a gold-headed cane and a re-election to Congress.

In the Senate in January, 1862, Senator Sumner argued that the seizure of Mason and Slidell was unjustifiable, according to the principles of international law. His voice was heard frequently during the war in defence of the national policy, and in 1865 he pronounced a eulogy on President Lincoln. In April, 1869, his speech on American claims on England caused great excitement and indignation in Great Britain, where it was supposed to threaten

war and an attempt to excite popular feeling against that country. In the same year his opposition to the scheme for the annexation of Santo Domingo to the United States brought him into collision with President Grant, and led to Sumner's removal from the chairmanship of the committee on foreign relations in March, 1870. He afterwards separated from the Republican party, and supported (1872) for the Presidency the nominee of the Liberal Republicans and Democratic party—Horace Greeley. He opposed General Grant's renomination, and at a convention of Democrats and Liberal Republicans held at Worcester in September, 1872, he was nominated for governor of Massachusetts. He was then in England in search of health, and declined. He returned home and to the Senate late in 1872, and in the course of the session he introduced an unpopular bill, which drew from the Massachusetts legislature in 1873 a vote of censure. It was to remove from the regimental colors of the army and from the army register the names of battles won by Union troops in the Civil War. The vote of censure was rescinded in 1874, a short time before his death, in Washington, D. C., March 11, 1874. See KANSAS, NEBRASKA, CIVIL RIGHTS BILL.

Sumner the Statesman.—United States Senator George F. Hoar, of Massachusetts, has given an analytical review of the public career of Mr. Sumner, dealing in large measure with the qualities that are essential in true statesmanship. The following is the substance of Senator Hoar's points and conclusions:

The history of Mr. Sumner's preparation for statesmanship covers the period from his birth until, on July 4, 1845, at the age of thirty-four, he delivered the oration on *The True Grandeur of Nations*, which is the first of his productions to which he has given a place among his collected works. This oration gave its author a conspicuous position among the public men of the country. He held no office until his election to the Senate, six years later. It is probable that when Sumner accepted the invitation of the city authorities of Boston to deliver the Fourth-of-July oration, he had no other expectation for his life than to gain a living by a not very distinguished or successful practice at the bar of Suffolk, and that the height of his ambition was to be the companion or successor of Story, or Greenleaf, as a teacher of law at Cambridge. There are traces in the letters of his friends of great though vague expectations of his future greatness. Mr. Webster, in giving him a prize for an essay just after he left college, remarked kindly that "the public held a pledge of him." But each of these friendly prophets would probably have deemed Sumner's opinions and methods, at that day of the greatest social and political intolerance of unpopular opinion, an insuperable obstacle to his success. But this oration reveals its author full grown. It was an attack on the most gigantic evil of all history, in the presence of a hostile audience, without regard to the dissenting opinions of friends, the orator planting himself on the simplest maxims of right as his premises, and justifying his argument by citing the opinions of great authorities in literature, ethics, and jurisprudence. We do not think of any change of method, opinion, style, or manner, which came to Sumner after that day, except, perhaps, a certain heaviness of delivery and loss of magnetism, partly the result of the habit of reading his important speeches from printed slips in his later years, and partly the physical result of the assault made upon him in the Senate chamber. The courage, the glowing eloquence, the lofty confidence, the faith in the ideals to which he ever remained true, each of these is here disclosed.

Before he left college Sumner had become a good scholar in Latin and Greek. He failed utterly in mathematics. "He delighted in Scott's novels, but most of all in Shakespeare, from whom he was perpetually quoting in conversation and letters." He kept a commonplace-book. His industry increased after leaving college. He rose for study at a quarter-past five in the morning, keeping up often until midnight. He became familiar with all heroic literature. He was an eager student of the old English poets and prose-writers. The results of the studies of this time abound in his speeches. Marston's lines—

"Oh! a fair cause stands firme and will abide;
Legions of angels fight upon her side"—

which he quoted in Faneuil Hall, in his speech of Aug. 22, 1848, are extracted in the commonplace-book which he had in college.

He took the second Bowdoin prize in his senior year for a dissertation on *The Present Character of the Inhabitants of New England, as resulting from the Civil, Literary, and Religious Institutions of the First Settlers.* He invested his prize-money in books, among which were Byron's *Poems*, the *Pilgrim's Progress*, Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*, Hazlitt's *Select British Poets*, and Harvey's *Shakespeare*. The last two were kept through life on his desk or table, ready for use. The *Shakespeare* was found open on the day of his death, as he had left it, with his mark between the leaves at the third part of *Henry VI.*, pp. 446, 447, and his pencil had noted the passage:

"Would I were dead! if God's good-will were so;
For what is in this world, but grief and woe?"

He spent the first year after leaving college in study, reading, among other things, Tacitus, Juvenal, Persius, Shakespeare, and Milton, Burton's *Anatomy*, Wakefield's *Correspondence with Fox*, Moore's *Life of Byron*, Butler's *Reminiscences*, Hume's *Essays*, Hallam, Robertson, and Roscoe, and making a new attempt at the mathematics.

He then, rather reluctantly, chose the law as his pursuit in life. No trace can be found in his biography of any inclination towards the practice of the legal profession, or of much respect or capacity for the logic of the common law. We do not remember that he anywhere speaks with enthusiasm of great advocates, unless, like Erskine, they have rendered some service to liberty, or maintained and established some great principle against hostile governments or courts. In his eulogies on Pickering and Story, delivered in 1846, his distaste towards the function of the lawyer, or even of the ordinary judge, is strongly manifest. He says that to Pickering "litigation was a sorry feast, and a well-filled docket of cases not unlike the curious and now untasted dish of 'nettles' in the first course of a Roman banquet." In the eulogy on Story he speaks of "the niceties of real law, with its dependencies of descents, remainders, and executory devises, also the ancient hair-splitting technicalities of special pleading—both creatures of an illiterate age, gloomy with black-letter and verbal subtilties." He returns again and again to the contrast between the lawyer or the judge, "*both practising law*," and the jurist. "All ages have abounded in lawyers and judges. There is no church-yard that does not contain their forgotten dust. But the jurist is rare. . . . The jurist is higher than the lawyer, as Watt, who invented the steam-engine, is higher than the journeyman who feeds its fires and pours oil on its irritated machinery—as Washington is more exalted than the Swiss, who, indifferent to cause, barters for money the vigor of his arm and the sharpness of his spear."

Mr. Sumner reaffirms this contrast with even greater zeal and force in his opinion in the great case of the *Impeachment of Andrew Johnson.* If there were to be stricken out from the history of constitutional liberty what has been won for her by those lawyers whose training and life have been that of the advocate, not of the jurist, there would be little of it left to recount.

But Sumner became forthwith a zealous student of that branch, or rather of that main trunk, of the science of jurisprudence which is somewhat inexactly called by many writers the "law of nature."

To this pursuit, if Sumner had needed any stimulant, he would have found it in the friendship and instruction of Judge Story. If Sumner had gone to Cambridge in 1845 to succeed his beloved teacher and friend, he would have been a great writer in this department of legal science. He would have completed the task which Mackintosh left unfinished.

A most important part of Sumner's education was his visit to Europe. He went as a student, not as a lounger. He did not allow the attractions of architecture, galleries, or society to prevent his accomplishment of his chief objects, the study of language and of jurisprudence. He acquired the three lan-

guages, French, German, and Italian, well enough to read and converse in them easily, and to understand the lectures which he attended. His knowledge of language, jurisprudence, foreign politics, foreign statesmen, social life, gained in this visit, all were of infinite value to his later career.

Sumner arrived at home May 3, 1840. The time of mere preparation had ended—the time of devotion to life's duties begun. The next five years were spent in diligent study, in writing for the magazines, in conducting an extensive correspondence, and in the practice of his profession. He threw himself with characteristic earnestness into the defence of the conduct of Mackenzie in the case of the Somers mutiny. He had some practice at the bar, and conducted successfully a few important causes. He took little interest in politics, and seems to have been much disgusted with the great popular excitements of the Presidential campaign of 1840.

If any man remain incredulous as to the character of Sumner's after-life, let him see what, beyond all question or peradventure, he was at thirty-four. Growing up in a great city, school, and college life, ten years at the bar, three years spent in the most brilliant society in Europe, will disclose foibles, and vices, and meannesses, and selfish ambitions, if they exist. If they do not show themselves at thirty-four, they are not likely to spring up afterwards.

We have here a man of a nature vehement and self-confident, tempered slightly with respect for elders; of strong family affections; taking great delight in friendship; so attracting and so being attracted by the best and greatest men that, in that large circle of intimacies which his correspondence discloses, embracing a list of famous names unapproached by any other biography of modern times, there cannot be found the name of a bad or mean and scarcely that of an obscure man; of an innocence and purity absolutely without a stain; of a singular sincerity and directness of speech and conduct; of marvellous industry; of almost miraculous memory; without humor; without a personal enemy; never having had a quarrel; loving the contemplation of the highest models of excellence; and of the loftiest and simplest maxims of virtue; delighting especially in the study of that science which applies the rules of the moral law to the conduct of men; fearless of opposition; of commanding presence; with the faculty of rapid and thorough investigation; with vast stores of learning always at his command; of a magnetic eloquence which inspired and captivated large masses of men as he moulded the lessons of history, the ornaments of literature, the commandments of law, human and divine, into his burning and impassioned argument; yet without political ambition; disliking the contentions of his profession, and dreaming fondly of the life of a student and teacher in the shades of a university as the highest bliss which an indulgent Heaven could bestow.

Sumner has been sometimes likened to Edmund Burke. There is a slight resemblance between some of the prints of Burke and some likenesses of Sumner. Sumner had been a student of Burke, and had caught something of the style of his statelier passages. They were both men of great intellectual independence, and paid little deference to the opinions of their associates, so far as related to their action upon political questions. But here the resemblance ends. Sumner had none of Burke's subtlety of intellect. He had neither the taste nor the capacity for philosophical analysis. Burke loved to dwell upon a subject, to consider it in all its relations, discover the most occult resemblances in things seemingly most unlike, and to develop differences in things apparently the most similar. Sumner planted himself on the most general statements of right, on the simplest maxims of morals and duty—the opening sentences of the Declaration of Independence, the Sermon on the Mount, the Golden Rule, the Beatitudes, the two sublime commandments on which hang all the law and the prophets.

Sumner liked to find a literary precedent for his method of dealing with a subject. Many of his best passages are, if not imitations of, at least suggested by, some famous passage in the works of some other orator or writer. The opening of his oration on *The True Grandeur of*

Nations is a paraphrase of part of the funeral discourse in the *Menexenus* of Plato. The *White Slavery in the Barbary States* is suggested by Dr. Franklin's parody on the speech of Mr. Jackson, of Georgia, written March 23, 1790, only twenty-four days before the author's death. The unsavory comparison of Senator Douglas to a "noisome, squat, and nameless animal," wrung from Sumner by a savageness of personal attack almost unparalleled, even in those days when slavery turned the Senate chamber into a bear-garden, is borrowed from a shaft which Burke launched at Lord North. The eulogy on Fessenden is, perhaps, the best specimen of his original genius, as it is one which his friends delight to contemplate as evidence of the nobility of his nature. Even here, he has to recall the reconciliation between Adam and Eve, in the *Paradise Lost*.

Sumner's methods were very simple. They have been pointed out a thousand times. He applied to every political question the plainest maxim of justice. He was sure that the people would see it, and, when they did see it, it would speedily prevail. He had the power to make them listen to him, and to make them see it as he did. He attacked the adversary in his stronghold. He would yield nothing by way of compromise. In other words, conscientiousness, faith in the people, power to move their moral nature, courage which attacked the strongest enemy, and an absolute refusal to compromise one jot or tittle of what he deemed right, though it were to save the universe from threatened destruction —these were his open secrets.

Nothing is more wonderful or absolute than his faith in the early overthrow of slavery. He declares in his first speech, just after the annexation of Texas, and as the war with Mexico is just breaking out, that "the fetters are soon to fall from the limbs of the slave." These confident expressions abound in his speeches. To his triumphant anticipation every victory, every crime, every outrage of slavery was but an added ground of hope, as helping to open the eyes of the American people to the power of whose awakened conscience he implicitly trusted.

When Mr. Sumner had any important question to deal with, he desired to collect everything that had been said or written upon it. He did nothing, if he could help it, without a literary authority. His industry never abated or relaxed until he was struck by death. During the period while he held the important station of chairman of the committee on foreign relations, he investigated each of the important subjects which came before him as if it were a science of itself. An attack on him called from the secret records of the Senate the dates of the reference and reporting of nine treaties, which were the last that were referred to this committee while he was its chairman. When we remember that these are the instances which his able and zealous antagonist has selected to show his neglect—when we remember the importance of the subjects—when we remember his relation to all the other great questions before the country, and the numerous calls upon his time that his correspondence and the visits of his countrymen, for purposes of business or friendship, must have occasioned, we are amazed at the proof of diligence which this evidence gives. We believe no other committee could show such a record.

Mr. Sumner was pained by the vote of the legislature of Massachusetts disapproving his resolution providing that the names of the battles won over our fellow-citizens in the war of the rebellion should be removed from the regimental colors of the regular army and from the army register. He was deeply touched and gratified by the rescinding of this vote, the information of which reached him just before his death. Mr. Schurz represents him as mourning and brooding over this sorrow: "Oh, those were evil days, that winter; days sad and dark, when he sat there in his lonesome chamber, unable to leave it, the world moving round him, and in it so much that was hostile, and he prostrated with the tormenting disease, which had returned with fresh violence, unable to defend himself, and with this bitter arrow in his heart!" We are confirmed by a careful and extensive inquiry among those who were most intimate with Mr. Sumner, and who saw him most frequently during the last two years of his life, in our own confident belief that this

picture, if correct at all, is applicable to very few and brief moments. Mr. Sumner's last years, down to the evening when he was struck with his final sickness while dining with some friends, were a season of cheerfulness, of courage, of great literary and social delights, and of hard work.

Was Charles Sumner a great statesman? If to be a great statesman is to deal with questions of the greatest moment to the state; to know what are its governing forces; to retain his hold on those forces; to direct them; to cause sound principles of action to take effect in the government of the state in great emergencies; to adapt his methods to the condition of things by which he is surrounded; in brief, to accomplish great and wise public ends by great and wise means—if this be statesmanship, then was Charles Sumner a great statesman, if one ever trod the face of the earth.

Sumner, CHARLES ALLEN, lawyer; born in Great Barrington, Mass., Aug. 2, 1835; received an academic education; was congressman-at-large in 1883–85; engaged in journalism, being editor at different times of the Sacramento *Sentinel*, San Francisco *Mirror*, etc. He was the author of *A Government Postal Telegraph; Compilation of Speeches in Congress and Elsewhere, on a Genuine Postal Telegraph; Cremation;* etc. He died in 1903.

Sumner, EDWIN VOSE, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 30, 1797; was engaged in mercantile pursuits in early life, and entered the army as second lieutenant in 1819. He was in the Black Hawk War; served many years on the frontier; was distinguished in the war against Mexico and was brevetted colonel; and in 1851–53 was military governor of New Mexico. In the spring of 1861 he superseded A. Sidney Johnston in command of the Department of the Pacific, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He commanded the 1st Corps of the Army of the Potomac in the Peninsular campaign, and was twice wounded. He was also wounded at Antietam, and in the battle of Fredericksburg he commanded the right grand division of the Army of the Potomac. In May, 1862, he was brevetted major-general, United States army. He died in Syracuse, N. Y., March 21, 1863.

Sumner, GEORGE WATSON, naval officer; born in Constantine, Mich., Dec. 31, 1841; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1861; promoted lieutenant in August, 1862; participated in the attacks on Forts Jackson and St. Philip and in those against the Vicksburg batteries. Later, while commander of the *Massasoit*, in company with the *Onondaga*, he protected General Grant's transports from attack by the Confederate iron-clads *Fredericksburg* and *Virginia* at City Point, Va. In 1893 he commanded the cruiser *Baltimore* at the international naval review in New York Harbor. He was promoted rear-admiral in 1899; retired in 1903.

Sumner, INCREASE, jurist; born in Roxbury, Mass., Nov. 27, 1746; admitted to the bar in 1770, and began parctice in his native town; was a representative in the State legislature in 1776–80, and in the State Senate in 1780–97; associate judge of the Supreme Court in 1782–97; governor of Massachusetts in 1797–99; and a member of the convention that adopted the national Constitution in 1789. He died in Roxbury, Mass., June 7, 1799.

Sumner, JETHRO, military officer; born in Virginia about 1730, was paymaster of the provincial troops in North Carolina in 1760, and commander of Fort Cumberland. In the spring of 1776 he was appointed colonel by the Provincial Congress, and with his regiment joined Washington's army. He was made brigadier-general in the Continental service in 1779, and in 1780 was engaged in the battle near Camden. In 1781, after active service in North Carolina, he joined Greene in the High Hills of Santee; was in the battle of Eutaw Springs, and was active in overawing the Tories in North Carolina until the close of the war. He died in Warren county, N. C., about 1790.

Sumner, JOHN, military officer; born in Middletown, Conn., May 1, 1735; commissioned captain in a regiment of foot in 1760, and fought in the battles of Lake George and Ticonderoga; was at the capture of Crown Point and the surrender of Montreal; served in the Revolutionary War till Jan. 1, 1781, taking part in the battles of Long Island, Harlem, White Plains, Germantown, Trenton, and Monmouth. He was one of the founders of the Society of the Cincinnati. He died in February, 1787.

Sumner, SAMUEL STORROW, military officer; born in Pennsylvania, Feb. 6, 1842; entered the national army in 1861 and served with distinction during the Civil War; later was conspicuous for bravery as an Indian fighter; was promoted major in 1879. He was commissioned a brigadier-general May 4, 1898, and later was promoted major-general for gallantry during the Santiago campaign in Cuba; was assigned to England as military attaché in 1899; commanded the 2d Brigade of United States troops in China in July, 1900; served in the Philippines in 1901–03; promoted brigadier-general United States army in 1901; major-general in 1903; retired in 1906.

Sumner, WILLIAM GRAHAM, educator; born in Paterson, N. J., Oct. 30, 1840; graduated at Yale College in 1863 and then studied abroad; was professor of political and social science at Yale College from 1872 till his death, in Englewood, N. J., April 12, 1910. His publications include *A History of American Currency; What Social Classes Owe to Each Other; Protectionism; Life of Andrew Jackson; Life of Alexander Hamilton; The Financier and Finances of the Revolution; A History of Banking in the United States*, etc.

Sumner, WILLIAM HYSLOP, military officer; born in Roxbury, Mass., July 4, 1780; graduated at Harvard College in 1799; admitted to the bar in 1802; was adjutant-general of Massachusetts in 1818–35. His publications include *An Inquiry into the Importance of the Militia; Observations on National Defence; Reminiscences; Memoir of Increase Sumner, Governor of Massachusetts; Reminiscences of General Warren and Bunker Hill; History of East Boston;* and *Reminiscences of Lafayette's Visit to Boston.* He died in Jamaica Plains, Mass., Oct. 24, 1861.

SUMTER, FORT

Sumter, FORT, a defensive work in the harbor of Charleston, S. C. Major Anderson had long urged his government, but in vain, to strengthen the military works in Charleston Harbor. The burden of the few replies was: "Be prudent; be kind; do nothing to excite the South Carolinians. It will not do to send you reinforcements, for that might bring on hostilities." At length he was satisfied that the people were about to attempt to seize Fort Sumter. This would insure the capture of all the other forts and his garrison, and he resolved to take position in Sumter before it should be too late. He was commander of all the defences of the harbor, and, in the absence of orders to the contrary, he might occupy any one he chose. Vigilant eyes were watching him. He revealed his secret to only three or four officers, for he did not know whom he might trust. He first removed the women and children, with a supply of provisions, to Fort Sumter. This was done by deceptive movements. They were sent first to Fort Johnson (Dec. 26) in vessels, with an ample supply of provisions, where they were detained on board until evening, under the pretext of preparing accommodations for them. The firing of three guns at Moultrie was to be the signal for them to be conveyed to Sumter. In the edge of the evening the greater part of the garrison at Moultrie embarked for Sumter. The people of Charleston were aware of the women and children of the garrison being before Fort Johnson, and concluded Anderson was going there also with his troops. Then three signal guns were fired.

The voyage was short and successful; and the little garrison of seventy men, with the women and children, and several weeks' provisions, were soon safe within the strong granite walls of Fort Sumter. A few officers and men had been left at Fort Moultrie to spike the guns, destroy their carriages, and cut down the flagstaff, when they were to follow to Sumter. The next day (Dec. 27), at noon, the stars and stripes were seen floating from the flag-staff of Sumter. The garrison wanted Anderson to hoist it at dawn. He would not do it until his chaplain, who had gone to the city, had returned. Around the flag-staff, not far from a great columbiad, the inmates of the fort were gathered. The commander, with the halyards in his hand, knelt at the foot of the staff.

FORT SUMTER IN 1860.

The chaplain prayed reverently for encouragement, support, and mercy; and when he ceased an impressive "Amen" fell from many lips. Anderson then hoisted the flag to the head of the staff. It was greeted with cheer after cheer, and the band struck up *Hail Columbia!*

Governor Pickens sent a message to Anderson demanding his immediate withdrawal from Fort Sumter. The demand was politely refused, and the major was denounced in the State convention, in the legislature, in public and private assemblies, as a "traitor to the South," because he was a native of a slave-labor State. The Confederates in Charleston and Washington were filled with rage. Floyd declared the "solemn pledges of the government" had been violated by Anderson, and he demanded of the President permission to withdraw the garrison from Charleston Harbor. The President refused; a disruption of the cabinet followed. Floyd fled; and Anderson received (Dec. 31) from Secretary of War Holt —a Kentuckian like himself—an assurance of his approval of what he had done. Earlier than this words of approval had reached Anderson. From the legislature of Nebraska, 2,000 miles away, a telegram said to him, "A happy New Year!" Other greetings from the outside world came speedily; and a poet in a parody on the old Scotch song of *John Anderson, my Jo,* made "Miss Columbia" sing:

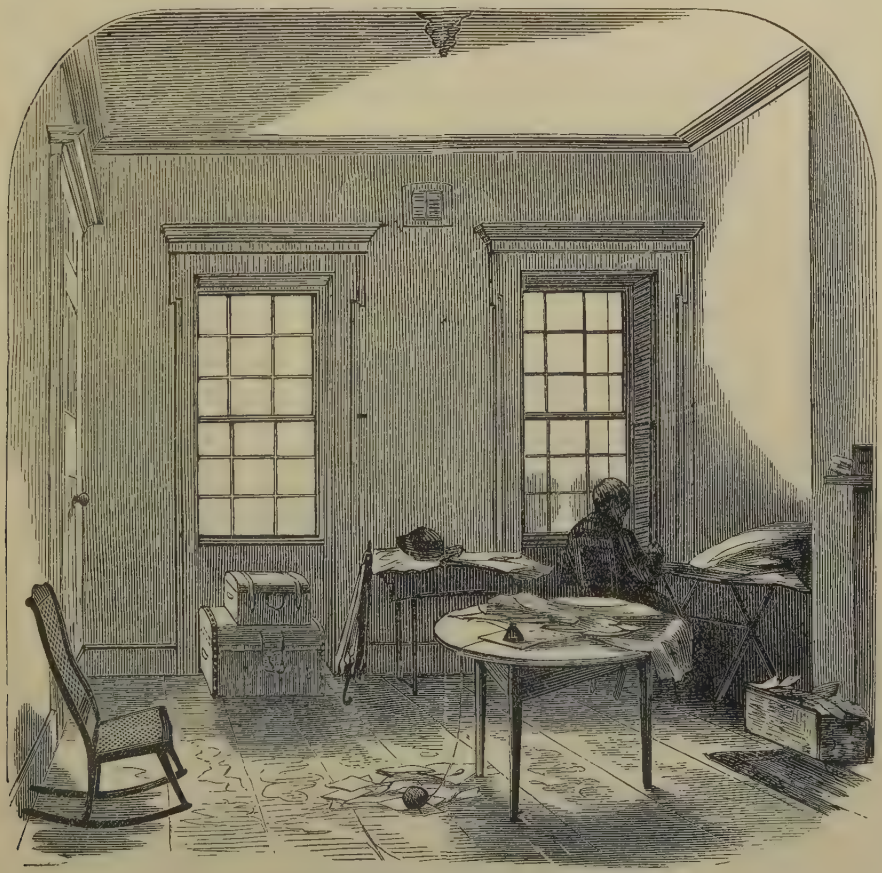
"Bob Anderson, my beau, Bob, when we were first aquent,
You were in Mex-i-co, Bob, because by order sent;
But now you are in Sumter, Bob, because you chose to go;
And blessings on you anyhow, Bob Anderson, my beau!

"Bob Anderson, my beau, Bob, I really don't know whether
I ought to like you so, Bob, considering that feather;
I don't like standing armies, Bob, as very well you know,
But *I love a man that dares to act,* Bob Anderson, my beau."

Governor Pickens, nettled by Anderson's refusal to give up Sumter, treated him as a public enemy within the domain of South Carolina. Armed South Carolinians had been sent to take possession

of Fort Moultrie, where they found the works dismantled. When, the next morning, Anderson sent to inquire by what authority they were there, the commander replied, "By the authority of the sovereign State of South Carolina, and by command of her governor." From that time until the close of President Buchanan's administration, and even longer, Major Anderson was compelled, by government policy, to see the Confederates gathering by thousands around Charleston, erecting fortifications within reach of his guns, and making every needful preparation for the destruction of Fort Sumter, without being allowed to fire a shot.

Major Anderson keenly felt the firing upon the STAR OF THE WEST (*q. v.*). He accepted it as an act of war, and sent a letter, under a flag of truce, to Governor Pickens, as to a belligerent enemy, asking him for an explanation of the outrage. Pickens replied that it was an act authorized by the State of South Carolina, and that any attempt to reinforce Sumter would be resisted. Anderson referred the whole subject to his government, and wrote to Pickens to that effect, expressing a hope that he would not prevent the bearer of his despatches (Lieutenant Talbot) from proceeding at once to Washington. No objection was interposed, and Talbot carried to the North the first full tidings of the failure of the expedition of the *Star of the West*. Two days after the attack on that vessel, Pickens sent his Secretary of State



MAJOR ANDERSON'S HEADQUARTERS AT FORT SUMTER.

(Magrath) and Secretary of War (Jamieson) as commissioners to Anderson to make a formal demand for the immediate surrender of Fort Sumter to the authorities of South Carolina. They tried every art to persuade and alarm him, but in vain. He assured them that sooner than suffer such a humiliation he would fire the magazine and blow fort and garrison into the air. They perceived that the only hope of gaining possession of the fort was in an assault or the starvation of the garrison. That afternoon the authorities had four old hulks, filled with stones, towed into the ship-channel and sunk, to prevent reinforcements reaching the fort.

When the wife of Major Anderson (a daughter of Gen. D. L. Clinch) heard of the perilous position of her husband, she was very anxious that he should have a tried and faithful servant with him. She was then in New York City and an invalid; but she resolved to take an old and tried sergeant, who had served her husband in the war with Mexico, into Fort Sumter. His name was Peter Hart, and she heard that he was somewhere in New York City. After searching for him among all the Harts whose names were in the city directory, she found him connected with the police. At her request he called upon her, accompanied by his wife. After telling him of Major Anderson's peril, she said, "I want you to go with me to Fort Sumter." Hart looked towards his young wife, a warm-hearted Irishwoman, for a moment, and then said, "I will go, madam." "But I want you to *stay* with the major." Hart looked inquiringly towards his Margaret, and replied, "I will go, madam." "But, Margaret," said Mrs. Anderson, "what do *you* say?" "Indade, ma'am, it's Margaret's sorry she can't do as much for you as Pater can," was the reply. "When will you go, Hart?" asked Mrs. Anderson. "To-night, madam, if you wish." "To-morrow night at six o'clock I will be ready," said Mrs. Anderson. In spite of the remonstrances of her physician, the devoted wife left New York on Jan. 3, 1861, for Charleston, accompanied by Peter Hart in the character of a servant, ready at all times to do her bidding. None but her physician knew her destination. They travelled without intermission, and arrived at Charleston late on Saturday night. She had neither eaten, drunk, nor slept during the journey, for she was absorbed with the subject of her errand. From Wilmington to Charleston she was the only woman on the train. Therein, and at the hotel in Charleston, she continually heard her husband cursed and threatened. She knew Governor Pickens personally, and the next morning she sought from him a permit for herself and Hart to go to Fort Sumter. He could not allow a man to be added to the garrison. Regarding with scorn the suggestion that the addition of one man to a garrison of seventy or eighty, when thousands of armed men were in Charleston, could imperil the "sovereign State of South Carolina," Mrs. Anderson sent a message to the governor, saying, "I shall take Hart with me, with or without a pass." Her words of scorn and her message were repeated to the governor, and he, seeing the absurdity of his objection, gave a pass for Hart. At 10 A.M. on Jan. 6, accompanied by a few personal friends, Mrs. Anderson and Peter Hart went in a boat to Fort Sumter. As she saw the banner over the fort she exclaimed, "The dear old flag!" and burst into tears. It was the first time emotion had conquered her will since she left New York. As her friends carried her from the boat to the sally-port, her husband ran out, caught her in his arms, and exclaimed, in a vehement whisper, "My glorious wife!" and carried her into the fort. "I have brought you Peter Hart," she said. "The children are well. I return to-night." In her husband's quarters she took some refreshments. The tide served in the course of two hours, and she returned to Charleston. She had reinforced Fort Sumter with Peter Hart, a more efficient power at the right hand of Major Anderson at that critical moment than a hundred soldiers would have been, for he was ever vigilant, keen, faithful, judicious, and brave, and was the major's trusted friend on all occasions. On a bed placed in the cars, and accompanied by Major Anderson's brother, the devoted wife started for New York that evening. She was insensible when she reached Washington. A friend carried her into Willard's Hotel. Forty-eight hours afterwards she started for New York, and there she was for a

long time threatened with brain fever. This narrative, in more minute detail, was from the lips of Mrs. Anderson.

On the day on which President Lincoln was inaugurated (March 4, 1861), a letter was received at the War Department from Major Anderson, dated Feb. 28, in which he expressed an opinion that reinforcements could not be thrown into Fort Sumter within the time specified for the government, nor could they be raised and taken to Charleston Harbor before Anderson's supplies would be exhausted. The President, anxious for peace, was in favor of abandoning the fort, as there seemed to be no power in the government to save it. Nearly every member of the cabinet agreed with him. GUSTAVUS V. FOX (*q. v.*), who had been a lieutenant in the navy, and had already through

INTERIOR OF SALLY-PORT, FORT SUMTER, 1861.

his relief, and rendered necessary by the limited supply of provisions, and with a view of holding possession of the same, except with "a force of not less than 2,000 good and well-disciplined men." This letter was laid before the cabinet March 5. General Scott was called in. The letter was considered, and Scott concurred in the opinion of Anderson. No sufficient force was at hand under the control of Secretary Holt presented (Jan. 7) to President Buchanan a plan for provisioning and reinforcing Sumter, was sent for. The plan was to have supplies put up in portable packages; to have vessels appear with them and troops off Charleston Bar in a large ocean steamer; to have three or four men-of-war as a protecting force; to have this vessel accompanied by three fast New York tug-boats, and, during a dark

night, to send in supplies and troops in these tugs or in launches, as should seem best after arrival and examination. Fox convinced the President of the feasibility of this plan. The President believed, if there seemed even a small chance of success, that it would be better to attempt sending aid to Anderson whether it should succeed or not. He thought that to abandon the position, under the circumstances, would be ruinous. Fox was sent to visit Charleston Harbor. With Captain Hartstene of the navy, who had joined the Confederates, he visited Fort Sumter, March 21, by permission of Governor Pickens, and ascertained that Anderson had supplies that would last him until April 15. On his return, Fox reported to the President that any attempt to reinforce Anderson must be made before April 15.

The President yearned for peace. He sent for a professed Union man in the Virginia convention then in session, and told him that if the convention would adjourn, instead of staying in session menacing the government, he would immediately order the evacuation of Fort Sumter. Instead of showing a willingness to preserve peace, the professed Unionist said to the President, "The United States must instantly evacuate Fort Sumter and Fort Pickens, and give assurances that no attempts shall be made to collect revenues in Southern ports." This demand for the national government to recognize the Provisional Confederate government at Montgomery as a sovereign power decided President Lincoln that all temporizing must end. He had said at Trenton, on his way to Washington, "It may be necessary to put the foot down firmly." He did so at once. Overruling the persistent objections of General Scott and other military authorities, he verbally authorized Mr. Fox to fit out an expedition according to his former plan for the relief of Fort Sumter. A written order to that effect was given to Fox April 4. In order that faith might be kept "as to Sumter," the President notified Governor Pickens that he was about to send a supply of provisions only to the garrison, and that if these provisions were allowed to enter, no more troops should be sent there. This must be done peaceably if possible; if not, by force, as the governor might choose. In spite of all official hinderances, Fox, with wonderful energy and skill, fitted out the expedition at New York, and sailed with it for Charleston Harbor on the 9th in the steamship *Baltic* with 200 recruits. The entire relief squadron was composed of the United States ships *Pawnee*, *Powhatan*, *Pocahontas*, and *Harriet Lane*, and three tugs. The *Powhatan* was the flag-ship of the expedition. While passing down New York Bay, the *Powhatan* was boarded by Lieutenant (afterwards Admiral) Porter, and by order of the President went directly to Fort Pickens, then, like Sumter, threatened by the Confederates. A terrible storm on the way deprived the expedition of all the tugs, and only the *Baltic*, *Pawnee*, and *Harriet Lane* arrived in a heavy storm off Charleston Bar. Before the storm abated it was too late to relieve the fort. The judgment and energy displayed by Mr. Fox on this occasion caused him to be appointed assistant Secretary of the Navy, and as such he performed important services during the war.

For three months after the expulsion of the *Star of the West* from Charleston Harbor, Major Anderson and his little garrison suffered and toiled until their provisions were exhausted, and a formidable army and forts and batteries, all prepared for the reduction of that fort, had grown up around them. The Charleston newspapers and politicians at public gatherings were constantly inflaming the public mind with political excitement, calling the fort the "Bastile of the Federal Union," and declared that "the fate of the Southern Confederacy hung by the ensign halyards of Fort Sumter." The legislature of South Carolina authorized the organization of 10,000 men, and M. L. Bonham, late member of Congress, was appointed major-general of the State forces. Volunteers from every part of the Confederacy flocked into Charleston, and at the close of March not less than 7,000 armed men and 120 pieces of cannon, mounted on logs and earthworks, were menacing Major Anderson and his garrison. These were under the general command of PIERRE G. T. BEAUREGARD (*q. v.*), who had been commissioned a brigadier-general by Jefferson Davis. He had arrived at Charleston on March 4.

Fort Sumter had been built for defence

against external, not internal, foes. Its strongest sides were towards the sea; its weakest side was towards Morris Island, three-fourths of a mile distant. On that side were its sally-ports and docks. On that island the insurgents erected a formidable battery, shielded by railroad iron, making it bomb-proof. Two other batteries were erected on the same island, and armed with columbiads and mortars. They were all fully manned. At Fort Moultrie and other points were batteries bearing on Sumter. The insurgents had also created a curious monster for the water, in the form of a huge floating-battery, made of pine and palmetto logs, and plated with railway-iron. Major Anderson's bearing had won for him the most cordial esteem of the civil authorities in Charleston. The faithful Peter Hart was his judicious messenger on all occasions, and his trusted caterer for the garrison in fresh provisions in the Charleston market. A source of great anxiety had been removed when, on Feb. 3, the women and children (twenty in number) were removed from the fort and taken to New York. During March rumors were everywhere afloat that the government was about to give up Fort Sumter. Anderson was perplexed by these rumors, but held firmly to his determination to defend it. Beauregard made (March 25) a proposition for its surrender on degrading terms, to which the major replied with warmth, "If I can only be permitted to leave on the pledge you mention, I shall never, so help me God, leave this fort alive." Beauregard apologized.

The message of the President to Governor Pickens produced a crisis. It caused intense excitement throughout the Confederacy, and especially at Charleston. Beauregard received a despatch from the government at Montgomery (April 10), conditionally authorizing him to demand the surrender of Fort Sumter. He determined to make the demand at 12 M. the next day. All the military and the batteries around Charleston Harbor were made ready for action. Politicians had been urging this blow for some time. ROGER A. PRYOR (*q. v.*), lately a member of Congress from Virginia, and Edmund Ruffin were among the foremost in urging an attack upon Fort Sumter. They wished it for its effect on the politics of the State. The Virginia Convention was yet full of Unionists. On the night of the 10th, while Charleston was rocked with excitement, Pryor harangued the multitude on the occasion of his being serenaded. He thanked the Carolinians for having "annihilated this cursed Union, reeking with corruption, and insolent with excess of tyranny. Thank God," he said, "it is at last blasted and riven by the lightning wrath of an outraged and indignant people." Referring to the doubtful position of Virginia, he said: "Do not distrust Virginia. As sure as to-morrow's sun will rise upon us, just so sure will Virginia be a member of the Southern Confederacy. And I will tell you, gentlemen, what will put her in the Southern Confederacy in less than an hour by Shrewsbury clock—*Strike a blow!* The very moment that blood is shed, Old Virginia will make common cause with her sisters of the South."

This cry for blood, sent to Montgomery by telegraph, was repeated at the capital of the Confederacy. Mr. Gilchrist, a member of the Alabama legislature, said to Davis and his compeers, "Gentlemen, unless you sprinkle blood in the faces of the people of Alabama, they will be back in the old Union in less than ten days." The order went to Beauregard to strike the blow. At noon, on April 11, he sent messengers to demand the surrender of the fort. Anderson promptly refused, but told the messengers that, unless his government sent him relief before the 15th, he would be compelled to evacuate the fort for want of supplies. Towards midnight, after communicating with Montgomery, Beauregard sent the same messengers to Anderson, telling him if he would agree to evacuate the fort on the 15th it should not be attacked. He promised to do so, unless he should be relieved. This answer was given at 2 A.M. on the 12th. Anderson did not know what his government was doing for him, for a messenger from Washington had been detained in Charleston. The Confederates did know. On the previous evening scouts had discovered the *Pawnee* and *Harriet Lane* outside Charleston Bar, battling with the storm. Their report startled the Charleston authorities. No time was

to be lost, for relief for Anderson was nigh.

At midnight the discharge of seven heavy guns had given a signal for all the reserves to congregate. The people rushed to the streets and were scarcely in re-

FORT SUMTER IN 1864.

pose again, when they were awakened by another alarm. Word had been sent to Anderson that a bombardment of the fort was about to commence. Suddenly the dull booming of a mortar at Fort Johnson was heard, and a fiery shell went flying through the black night. Then the great guns on Morris Island opened upon Fort Sumter, and a furious attack began. At his own request, the venerable Virginian Edmund Ruffin fired the first shot at Sumter. Other batteries opened. Fort Sumter remained silent. The men were in the bomb-proofs, for there were not enough to man the guns properly. The officers and men were arranged in three reliefs. The first was commanded by Captain Doubleday, the second by Surgeon Crawford, and the third by Lieutenant Snyder. Thus prepared, Anderson ordered, at 7 A.M., a reply to the attack. The first shot was sent by Captain Doubleday at the strong battery on Morris Island, when all the other batteries were assailed by shots from Fort Sumter. The first shot sent against Fort Moultrie was fired by Surgeon (afterwards Major-General) Crawford. It was caught in the sand-bags, and afterwards sent as a present to George P. Kane, chief of police of Baltimore.

For four hours this combat lasted, when the firing from the batteries became more concentrated, and told fearfully upon the walls and parapets. Some of the barbette guns were dismounted and otherwise disabled, and the barracks were set on fire. The garrison had heard rumors of approaching relief, and when the storm of shot and shell beat hardest Surgeon Crawford ascended to the parapet and beheld the relief vessels through the misty air. They could not get over the bar, for its sinuous channel was uncertain. The workmen at the guns in the fort received food and drink while at their posts, and they toiled on wearily until dark, when the port-holes were closed. The ensuing night was dark and stormy, with high wind and tide. A slow bombardment of the fort was kept up all night. The storm ceased before the dawn. The sun rose in splendor. The cannonade and bombardment was fiercely renewed. Red-hot shot were hurled into the fort. The barracks and officers' quarters were consumed. The powder-magazine was shielded as well as possible. On the morning of the 13th no food was left for the garrison to eat but salted pork. The flames spread, and the sally-port was consumed.

To prevent explosion ninety barrels of gunpowder were rolled into the water.

The heat and vapor became stifling in the fort, yet the exhausted garrison kept the old flag flying. Eight times its staff had been hit without serious injury; but at near 2 P.M. that day the staff was shot off near the peak, and, with the flag, fell among the gleaming cinders. Lieutenant Hall rescued the precious bunting before it took fire. Peter Hart carried it, with the piece of the staff, and fastened it, where the soiled banner was kept flying defiantly. Not far off, eighty-five years

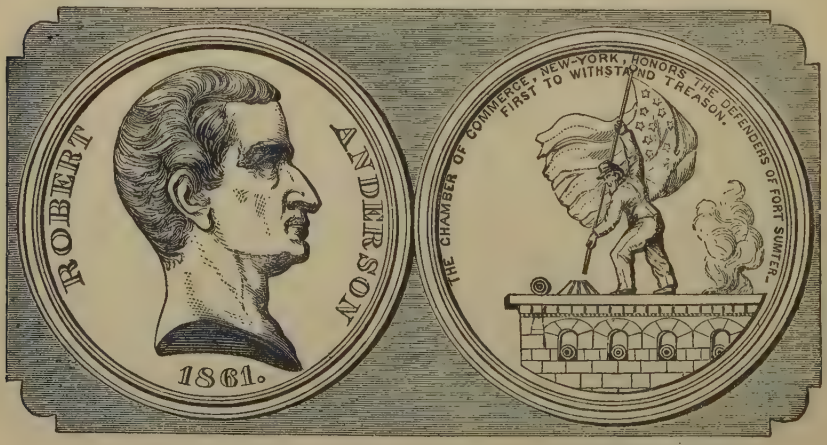
SERGEANT HART NAILING THE COLORS TO THE FLAG-STAFF OF FORT SUMTER.

INSIDE THE WALLS OF FORT SUMTER AFTER THE BOMBARDMENT.

with company arms and property and all private property, and the privilege of saluting and retaining the old flag. Not one of the garrison had been killed or seriously injured. That night they enjoyed undisturbed repose. The bombardment had lasted thirty-six hours, and over 3,000 shot and shell had been hurled at the fort. The evacuation took place the following day — the Sabbath (April 14, 1861) —and the garrison was carried in a small steamboat out to the *Baltic*, and all sailed for New York. The fort had been evacuated, not surrendered. Anderson bore away the flag of Sumter, which was used as his winding-sheet, and was buried with him.

before, a flag had been planted by Sergeant Jasper, battling for the establishment of American nationality; now defenders of the flag were battling for its maintenance. At about this hour Senator Wigfall appeared at the fort to persuade Anderson to surrender, but failed. Soon afterwards aides came from Beauregard for the same purpose; and then other deputations appeared; but Anderson refused to surrender the fort. Finally, when shot and shell and flame and lack of food had rendered the garrison helpless, he agreed to evacuate the fort, the garrison departing

As soon as the garrison were on board the *Baltic*, the flag of Sumter was raised to the mast-head and saluted with cheers and firing of great guns from the other vessels. The vessel (the *Isabel*) that conveyed the garrison to the *Baltic* did not leave Fort Sumter, on account of the tide, until Monday morning, April 15. The

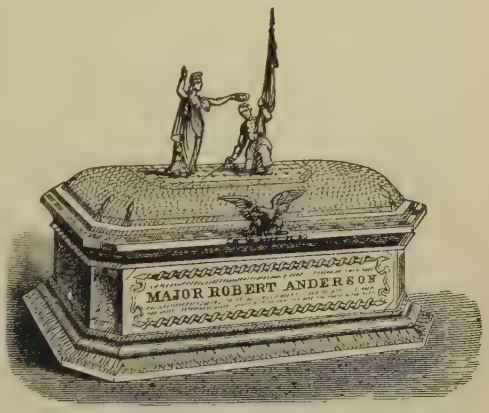


FORT SUMTER MEDAL EXECUTED BY ORDER OF THE NEW YORK CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Baltic sailed for New York. The praises of Major Anderson and his little band were upon every lip, while the people of the country were deeply moved by the outrage in Charleston Harbor. Before the evacuation, the citizens of Taunton, Mass., impressed with his prowess and patriotism, had voted him an elegant sword; the authorities of New York gave him the freedom of the city in an elegant gold box. The citizens also presented him with a gold medal, suitably inscribed. The citizens of Philadelphia gave him an elegant sword, and societies and legislative bodies presented him with tokens of the good-will of his countrymen. Finally, the Chamber of Commerce of New York ordered (June 6, 1861) the execution of a series of medals to be presented to Major Anderson and to each man of the garrison.

When news reached Washington of the evacuation of Charleston, in February, 1865, the President appointed the anniversary (April 14) of the evacuation of the fort when the old flag which Anderson took with him should be again raised over the fortress by his hand. A large number of citizens left New York in the steamer *Oceanus* to assist in the ceremonies. When the multitude were assembled around the flag-staff, the songs of *Victory at Last* and *Rally round the Flag* were sung. Rev. Mr. Harris, who made the prayer at the raising of the flag over Fort Sumter, Dec. 27, 1860, now offered prayer and pronounced a blessing on the old flag. Rev. Dr. Storrs read selections from the Psalms. General Townsend read Major Anderson's despatch announcing the fall of Sumter. Then the faithful Sergeant Hart appeared with a carpet-bag containing the flag. It was attached to the halyards, when General Anderson, after a brief and touching address, hoisted it to the peak of the flag-staff amid loud huzzas, followed by singing *The Star-spangled Banner*. Six guns on the fort were then fired, and were responded to by all the batteries that took part in the bombardment in 1861. Henry Ward Beecher, the orator of the day, pronounced an address. So, four years from the time of the evacuation of Fort Sumter it was "repossessed" by the government.

Sumter, THE one of the Confederate cruisers whose depredations led to the make-up of what are popularly known as the "Alabama Claims" against Great Britain. The *Sumter* was a regularly commissioned war-vessel, which before the beginning of the Civil War was the Havana packet - steamer *Marquis de Habana*. She was commanded by Capt. Raphael Semmes, had a crew of sixty-five armed men and twenty-five marines, and was heavily armed. Her cruising area was among the West India Islands and along the Spanish coast, and she captured many American merchantmen. At the close of 1861 she was forced to seek shelter under British guns at Gibraltar, where she was watched so closely by the United States steamer *Tuscarora* that escape was impossible, and early in 1862 she was sold and withdrawn from the Confederate service. See ALABAMA CLAIMS, THE; CONFEDERATE PRIVATEERS.



GOLD BOX PRESENTED TO ANDERSON.

Sumter, THOMAS, military officer; born in Virginia in 1734; was a volunteer in the French and Indian War, and was present at Braddock's defeat in 1755. In March, 1776, he became lieutenant-colonel of a South Carolina regiment of riflemen, and was stationed in the interior of the State to overawe the Indians and Tories. After the fall of Charleston in 1780, Sumter hid in the swamps of the Santee; and when his State was ravaged by the British,

he retreated to North Carolina, where he raised a larger force than he could arm, and with these he fought and defeated a British force at Hanging Rock, and totally routed a British force on the Catawba (July 12, 1780), but was afterwards (Aug. 18) surprised and defeated at Fishing Creek by Tarleton. He soon raised another corps and repulsed Colonel Wemyss near the Broad River (Nov. 12), and at Blackstocks defeated Tarleton, who attempted to surprise him. So vigilant and brave was Sumter that the British called him the "South Carolina Gamecock." Raising three regiments, with Marion and Perkins he dreadfully harassed the British and Tories in South Carolina. He received the thanks of Congress, Jan. 13, 1781. Cornwallis, writing to Tarleton, said of him, "He certainly has been our greatest plague in this country." He captured the British post at Orangeburg (May, 1781), and soon afterwards those at Dorchester and Monk's Corner. General Sumter was a warm friend of the national Constitution, and was member of Congress under it in 1789–93, and again in 1797–1801. He was United States Senator in 1801–10, when he was appointed United

THOMAS SUMTER.

States minister to Brazil. He died at South Mount, near Camden, S. C., June 1, 1832.

Sunbury, Fort. British forces were sent to Georgia from New York late in 1778, and on Jan. 9, 1779, they captured Fort Sunbury, 28 miles south of Savannah, the only important post left to the Americans on the Georgia seaboard.

Sunday, William Ashley, evangelist; born in Ames, Ia., Nov. 19, 1863; was educated in Nevada, Ia., and at the Northwestern University; was a professional baseball-player in the National League in 1883–90; assistant secretary of the Chicago Y. M. C. A. in 1891–95; became an evangelist in 1896; was ordained to the Presbyterian ministry in Chicago, April 15, 1903; and received the degree of D. D. from the Pennsylvania College for Women in 1912. In 1915 he conducted remarkable evangelistic campaigns in Philadelphia and Paterson, N. J., and had similar engagements for several years ahead. His labors were on an exceptionally systematic plan, he being assisted by a considerable staff of ushers, physicians, and other aids, besides large volunteer choirs. He preached twice daily to audiences that often exceeded 10,000 persons. Personally he received only the collections on the last day of each campaign.

Sunday Celebration of Congress. When Washington's letter announcing the capitulation of Cornwallis was read, Congress resolved to go in procession at two o'clock the same day to the Dutch Lutheran Church, "and return thanks to Almighty God for crowning the allied armies of the United States and France with success." A committee was appointed, and was instructed to report resolutions of thanks to the armies and their officers, and to recommend appropriate honors. The committee reported on the 29th, and Congress resolved that their thanks should be presented to Washington, Rochambeau, and De Grasse, and the officers and soldiers under their respective commands; that a marble column should be erected at Yorktown, that two stands of colors taken from Cornwallis should be presented to Washington; that two pieces of the field ordnance captured at York should be presented to each of the French commanders; and that Dec. 13th be appointed as a day of general thanksgiving.

Sunday-schools. The following table is given in a special report of the Bureau of the Census on *Religious Bodies* (1910):

SUNDAY-SCHOOLS

SUNDAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Denomination.	Schools.	Officers and Teachers.	Scholars.
All denominations	178,214	1,648,664	14,685,997
Protestant bodies	165,128	1,564,821	13,018,434
Adventist bodies	2,242	14,286	69,110
Baptist bodies	43,178	323,473	2,898,914
Christians	1,149	10,510	72,963
Church of Christ, Scientist	551	3,155	16,116
Congregationalists	5,741	75,801	638,089
Disciples	8,078	70,476	634,504
Dunkers	1,223	10,789	78,575
Evangelical bodies	2,549	32,113	214,998
Friends	887	7,735	53,761
German Evan., Synod of N. A.	1,111	12,079	116,106
Independent churches	922	6,732	57,680
Lutheran bodies	9,450	83,891	782,786
Mennonite bodies	439	5,041	44,922
Methodist bodies	57,464	569,296	4,472,930
Presbyterian bodies	14,452	176,647	1,511,175
Protestant Episcopal Church	5,601	51,048	464,351
Reformed bodies	2,588	38,710	361,548
Unitarians	364	3,592	24,005
United Brethren bodies	3,870	42,169	301,320
Universalists	600	6,585	42,201
Other Protestant bodies	2,669	20,693	162,380
Roman Catholic Church	11,172	62,470	1,481,535
Jewish congregations	600	2,239	49,514
Latter-day Saints	1,169	18,507	130,085
Eastern Orthodox churches	7	10	509
All other bodies	138	617	5,920

The general statistics of all schools (denominational and undenominationl) are given by States and Territories in the table which follows:

DISTRIBUTION BY STATES AND TERRITORIES.

State or Territory.	Schools.	Officers and Teachers.	Scholars.
Continental United States	192,722	1,746,074	15,337,811
North Atlantic division	34,082	469,310	4,418,106
Maine	1,657	14,811	113,596
New Hampshire	835	8,097	66,741
Vermont	902	8,429	62,624
Massachusetts	3,111	52,534	497,782
Rhode Island	506	8,330	81,791
Connecticut	1,396	19,803	182,502
New York	9,189	126,839	1,273,300
New Jersey	3,004	44,502	416,021
Pennsylvania	13,482	185,665	1,723,749
South Atlantic division	37,414	283,604	2,481,930
Delaware	448	5,655	50,313
Maryland	2,672	32,038	266,471
District of Columbia	302	5,392	57,550
Virginia	6,521	53,207	451,667
West Virginia	3,699	29,037	223,777
North Carolina	7,511	54,245	495,503
South Carolina	5,099	35,669	334,072
Georgia	8,456	52,478	474,780
Florida	2,706	15,883	127,897
North Central division	64,905	611,991	5,080,905
Ohio	9,683	114,752	967,534
Indiana	6,222	65,741	532,074
Illinois	8,713	97,318	856,526
Michigan	5,537	55,319	452,244

DISTRIBUTION BY STATES AND TERRITORIES—*Continued.*

State or Territory.	Schools.	Officers and Teachers.	Scholars.
Wisconsin	4,381	30,406	289,187
Minnesota	4,498	32,301	291,399
Iowa	6,105	57,279	434,551
Missouri	7,599	64,158	537,622
North Dakota	1,616	7,977	64,864
South Dakota	1,765	10,128	80,763
Nebraska	3,376	27,712	210,927
Kansas	5,410	48,900	363,214
South Central division	46,142	289,672	2,562,972
Kentucky	5,275	37,241	343,991
Tennessee	6,494	42,767	369,217
Alabama	6,917	40,904	365,868
Mississippi	6,053	33,177	290,525
Louisiana	3,493	18,681	184,410
Arkansas	4,842	30,337	248,531
Oklahoma	3,684	24,499	201,947
Texas	9,384	62,066	558,483
Western division	10,179	91,497	793,898
Montana	508	3,454	35,226
Idaho	663	6,390	47,828
Wyoming	290	1,969	15,920
Colorado	1,417	12,351	108,736
New Mexico	409	1,924	21,257
Arizona	237	1,841	15,682
Utah	599	10,783	90,608
Nevada	91	589	5,085
Washington	1,810	15,064	121,778
Oregon	1,277	10,653	81,466
California	2,888	26,479	250,312

Sunderland, LE ROY, author; born in Exeter, R. I., May 18, 1802; entered the ministry of the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1823; became a strong abolitionist and an exponent of Christianity. He was the author of *History of the United States; Appeal on the Subject of Slavery; Testimony of God against Slavery; Anti-slavery Manual; Mormonism Exposed,* etc. He died in Quincy, Mass., May 15, 1885.

Sun-worshippers. The Indians found in the region of the Gulf of Mexico and on the lower Mississippi by the Europeans had undoubtedly been in contact with the higher civilization of Mexico and South America at that time, and were sun-worshippers.

Superior, LAKE, DISCOVERY OF. See ALLOUEZ, CLAUDE JEAN; DABLON, CLAUDE; JOLIET, LOUIS; MARQUETTE, JACQUES; NICOLET, JEAN.

SUPREME COURT, UNITED STATES

Supreme Court, UNITED STATES. In 1915 the highest judicial tribunal in the United States comprised the following justices:

Chief-Justice.	Born.	Appointed.
Edward D. White, Louisiana	1845	1910
Associate Justices.		
Joseph McKenna, California	1843	1898
Oliver W. Holmes, Mass.	1841	1902
William R. Day, Ohio	1849	1903
Charles E. Hughes, New York	1862	1910
Willis Van Devanter, Wyoming	1859	1910
Joseph R. Lamar, Georgia	1857	1910
Mahlon Pitney, New Jersey	1858	1912
James C. McReynolds, Tennessee	1862	1914

Reporter.
Charles H. Butler, New York.

Clerk.
James D. Maher, District of Columbia.

Marshal.
John M. Wright, Kentucky.

The salary of the chief-justice of the United States is $15,000; associate justices, $14,500 each; of the reporter, $4,500; marshal, $4,500; clerk of the Supreme Court, $6,000.

The country was divided into nine circuits, to each of which a justice of the Supreme Court was assigned. The circuits and their judges were:

Circuit.	Judges.	Appointed.
1.	Goerge H. Bingham, Rhode Island	1913
	William L. Putnam, Maine	1892
	Frederic Dodge, Massachusetts	1912
2.	E. Henry Lacombe, New York	1887
	Alfred C. Cox, New York	1902
	Henry G. Ward, New York	1907
	Henry W. Rogers, Connecticut	1913
	Martin A. Knapp, District of Columbia	1910
3.	Victor B. Woolley, Delaware	1914
	Joseph Buffington, Pennsylvania	1906
	John B. McPherson, Pennsylvania	1912
4.	Charles A. Woods, South Carolina	1913
	Jeter C. Pritchard, North Carolina	1904
5.	Don A. Pardee, Georgia	1881
	A. P. McCormick, Texas	1892
	Richard W. Walker, Alabama	1914
6.	Arthur C. Denison, Michigan	1911
	John W. Warrington, Ohio	1909
	Loyal E. Knappen, Michigan	1910
7.	Francis E. Baker, Indiana	1902
	William H. Seaman, Wisconsin	1905
	Christian C. Kohlsaat, Illinois	1905
	Julian W. Mack, Illinois	1911
8.	Walter H. Sanborn, Minnesota	1892
	William C. Hook, Kansas	1903
	Elmer B. Adams, Missouri	1905
	John E. Carland, District of Columbia	1911
	Walter I. Smith, Iowa	1911
9.	Erskine, M. Ross, California	1895
	William B. Gilbert, Oregon	1892
	William W. Morrow, California	1897
	William H. Hunt, District of Columbia	1911

Following is a complete list of the justices of the United States Supreme Court, the names of the chief-justices being in italics.

While United States minister to England, the Hon. E. J. Phelps wrote an essay on the Constitution of the United States, in which the Supreme Court of the United States is described as follows:

The judicial power of the United States government is vested by the Constitution in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time establish. The number of the judges of the Supreme Court is also fixed by Congress. It consists at this time of a chief-justice and eight associate justices. They are appointed by the President, confirmed by the Senate, hold office during good behavior, and receive a compensation which cannot be diminished during their term of office. On attaining the age of seventy years, a justice of this court is entitled (if he has served ten years) to retire upon the same compensation during his life which he has received while on the bench. The court sits at Washington, from October till May, with short intermediate recesses.

For the organization of the inferior federal courts, the United States are divided into circuits, in number equal to the number of the justices of the Supreme Court. To each of these circuits a justice of that court is assigned, and has usually a residence within it. In each circuit a circuit judge is appointed. The several circuits are again divided into districts, in proportion to the amount of judicial business. Each State constitutes at least one district, and in the larger States there are several. In each district there is appointed a district judge. The circuit and district judges are appointed in the same manner, and are subject to the same provisions as to tenure of office and retirement as apply to the justices of the Supreme Court. The courts held by these judges are circuit courts and district courts, sitting for the districts in which they are held. The circuit courts may be held by a justice of the Supreme Court, by the circuit judge of the circuit, or by a district judge within his own district, or in any other district of the same circuit to which he may be temporarily assigned, or by any of these judges sitting together. The district court can only be held by the district judge in his own district.

JUSTICES OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT.

Name.	Service.		Born.	Died.
	Term.	Years.		
John Jay, New York	1789–95	6	1745	1829
John Rutledge, South Carolina [declined]	1789–91	2	1739	1800
William Cushing, Massachusetts	1789–1810	21	1733	1810
James Wilson, Pennsylvania	1789–98	9	1742	1798
John Blair, Virginia	1789–96	7	1732	1800
Robert H. Harrison, Maryland	1789–90	1	1745	1790
James Iredell, North Carolina	1790–99	9	1751	1799
Thomas Johnson, Maryland	1791–93	2	1732	1819
William Paterson, New Jersey	1793–1806	13	1745	1806
John Rutledge, South Carolina* [not confirmed]	1795–95	..	1739	1800
Samuel Chase, Maryland	1796–1811	15	1741	1811
Oliver Ellsworth, Connecticut	1796–1800	4	1745	1807
Bushrod Washington, Virginia	1798–1829	31	1762	1829

JUSTICES OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT—*Continued.*

Name.	Service.		Born.	Died.
	Term.	Years.		
Alfred Moore, North Carolina	1799–1804	5	1755	1810
John Marshall, Virginia	1801–35	34	1755	1835
William Johnson, South Carolina	1804–34	30	1771	1834
Brockholst Livingston, New York	1806–23	17	1757	1823
Thomas Todd, Kentucky	1807–26	19	1765	1826
Joseph Story, Massachusetts	1811–45	34	1779	1845
Gabriel Duval, Maryland	1811–36	25	1752	1844
Smith Thompson, New York	1823–43	20	1767	1843
Robert Trimble, Kentucky	1826–28	2	1777	1828
John McLean, Ohio	1829–61	32	1785	1861
Henry Baldwin, Pennsylvania	1830–44	14	1779	1844
James M. Wayne, Georgia	1835–67	32	1790	1867
Roger B. Taney, Maryland	1836–64	28	1777	1864
Philip B. Barbour, Virginia	1836–41	5	1783	1841
John Catron, Tennessee	1837–65	28	1786	1865
John McKinley, Alabama	1837–52	15	1780	1852
Peter V. Daniel, Virginia	1841–60	19	1785	1860
Samuel Nelson, New York	1845–72	27	1792	1873
Levi Woodbury, New Hampshire	1845–51	6	1789	1851
Robert C. Grier, Pennsylvania	1846–70	24	1794	1870
Benjamin R. Curtis, Massachusetts	1851–57	6	1809	1874
John A. Campbell, Alabama	1853–61	8	1811	1889
Nathan Clifford, Maine	1858–81	23	1803	1881
Noah H. Swayne, Ohio	1861–81	20	1804	1884
Samuel F. Miller, Iowa	1862–90	28	1816	1890
David Davis, Illinois	1862–77	15	1815	1886
Stephen J. Field, California	1863–97	34	1816	1899
Salmon P. Chase, Ohio	1864–73	9	1808	1873
William Strong, Pennsylvania	1870–80	10	1808	1895
Joseph P. Bradley, New Jersey	1870–92	22	1813	1892
Ward Hunt, New York	1872–82	10	1811	1886
Morrison R. Waite, Ohio	1874–88	14	1816	1888
John M. Harlan, Kentucky	1877–1911	34	1833	1911
William B. Woods, Georgia	1880–87	7	1824	1887
Stanley Matthews, Ohio	1881–89	8	1824	1889
Horace Gray, Massachusetts	1881–1902	21	1828	1902
Samuel Blatchford, New York	1882–93	11	1820	1893
Lucius Q. C. Lamar, Mississippi	1888–93	5	1825	1893
Melville W. Fuller, Illinois	1888–1910	22	1833	1910
David J. Brewer, Kansas	1889–1910	21	1837	1910
Henry B. Brown, Michigan	1890–....	..	1836	....
†George Shiras, Jr., Pennsylvania	1892–1903	11	1832	....
Howell E. Jackson, Tennessee	1893–95	2	1832	1895
Edward D. White, Louisiana	1893–....	..	1845	....
Rufus W. Peckham, New York	1895–1909	4	1837	1909
Joseph McKenna, California	1898–....	..	1843	....
Oliver W. Holmes, Massachusetts	1902–....	..	1841	....
William R. Day, Ohio	1903–....	..	1849	....
William H. Moody, Massachusetts	1906–1910	4	1853	....
Horace H. Lurton, Tennessee	1909–1914	5	1844	1914
Charles E. Hughes, New York	1910–....	..	1862	....
Willis Van Devanter, Wyoming	1910–....	..	1859	....
Joseph R. Lamar, Georgia	1910–....	..	1857	....
Mahlon Pitney, New Jersey	1912–....	..	1858	....
James C. McReynolds, Tennessee	1914–....	..	1862	....

* Presided at the August term. † Retired.

The jurisdiction of the federal courts is extended by the Constitution to all cases in law and equity under the Constitution, the laws of the United States, or treaties made under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizen of another State, between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State or citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

The result is that the federal courts have a general jurisdiction in two classes of cases. Under the first class are comprehended all cases where the cause of action arises under the Constitution or laws of the United States. Under the second class are embraced all cases in law

and equity in which an ambassador, minister, consul, or alien is a party; where the parties are citizens of different States, or where a State brings action against a foreign state, or against the citizens of another State or of a foreign state.

In cases within the first class, the jurisdiction of the federal courts is exclusive; in those of the second, it is concurrent with the jurisdiction of the State courts. In the latter class of cases, the action may be brought in the federal courts in the first instance by the party entitled to sue there, or, having been brought in the State courts, it may be seasonably removed by such a party into the federal courts.

In the exercise of the jurisdiction belonging to the federal courts, the district courts have original jurisdiction in admiralty, in bankruptcy proceedings under the United States laws, and in various revenue and other cases over which jurisdiction is specially conferred upon them by act of Congress; and an appeal lies from the district court to the circuit court sitting in the same district.

The circuit courts, besides this appellate jurisdiction from the district courts, have original and general jurisdiction in all cases in law and equity coming within either of the two classes above described. They have also jurisdiction in all criminal cases where the offence is crime on the high seas or against foreign nations, or is made criminal by statutes of the United States having reference to subjects within the control of the national government. From the circuit courts an appeal or writ of error lies to the Supreme Court of the United States, in all civil cases in which the amount in controversy is $5,000 exclusive of costs, and in all cases where a question material to the decision arises under the Constitution, laws, or treaties of the United States. There is no appeal to the Supreme Court in criminal cases, though a *habeas corpus* may be applied for in that court where a person has been convicted and sentenced for crime in a circuit or State court, and is in confinement, if it is claimed that on his trial or sentence any provision of the Constitution, laws, or treaties of the United States have been violated. The courts will not, however, consider any other question upon such an application, nor take cognizance of any other error.

The Supreme Court has original jurisdiction in cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and in those wherein a State is a party. It also hears applications for *mandamus* and *habeas corpus* in certain cases. In all other cases its jurisdiction is appellate, and is subject to the regulation of Congress. It has been uniformly held by the Supreme Court that the jurisdiction authorized by the Constitution is permissive only, and requires to be made effectual by appropriate legislation. Congress has, however, from the beginning provided for the exercise by the federal courts of all the jurisdiction contemplated by the Constitution, and there has never been any disposition to attempt to abridge it.

The Supreme Court, aside from the limited original jurisdiction before mentioned, and the large appellate jurisdiction from the various circuit courts, has another important power upon appeal or writ of error, in certain cases in the State courts. Whenever in an action in a State court a right is claimed on either side arising under the Constitution or laws of the United States, or any treaty with a foreign government, and the right so claimed is denied upon appeal to the highest court in the State, the cause, so far as that question is concerned, may be carried to the Supreme Court of the United States for revision. No other point will, however, be considered in that court in such case. And if the question does not distinctly arise, or is not necessary to be decided in reaching a proper judgment, the appeal will not be entertained. It will thus be seen that no person claiming the protection of any provision of the Constitution of the United States, or of any of its laws or treaties, in any tribunal in the country, whether State or federal, can be deprived of it short of a decision of the Supreme Court, if he chooses to invoke its judgment upon the question; while if a State court allows him the right he contends for, no appeal to the Supreme Court to reverse such a decision lies against him.

In the Territories organized under acts of Congress but not yet admitted as States, the judicial power is exercised by

federal courts, the judges of which are appointed by the President for a fixed term, and confirmed by the Senate. From the judgment of these courts an appeal or writ of error to the Supreme Court of the United States lies in most cases. In some of the Territories, inferior local courts are also authorized by the acts of organization. In the District of Columbia, in which the federal seat of government is located, and over which permanent and complete jurisdiction has been ceded to the United States by the States from which that district was taken, there is a system of federal courts having general civil and criminal jurisdiction, regulated by acts of Congress. From their decision in most cases, except criminal cases, an appeal to the Supreme Court is allowed.

Applicable to all federal courts in the United States, however constituted and wherever sitting, are certain general provisions in the Constitution, designed for the protection of accused persons against injustice, and for the insuring of fair trials in all cases.

It is declared that no person shall be held to answer for a capital or infamous crime but on the indictment of a grand jury, except in military or naval service; nor for the same offence be twice put in jeopardy, nor be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself; that in all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury of the district (previously ascertained by law) wherein the crime shall have been committed, to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation, to be confronted with the witnesses against him, to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and the assistance of counsel; that excessive bail shall not be required, excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

The Constitution also provides that in suits at common law, where the value in controversy exceeds $20, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and that no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined than according to the rules of the common law. This provision has reference only to proceedings in the federal courts; but a similar clause exists in all the State constitutions, applicable to all State courts.

Upon the subject of the judicial powers of the federal government it only remains to add that in every State in the Union there is a complete system of courts for the administration of civil and criminal justice, including courts of highest appeal. These courts are independent of the courts of other States, and equally independent of the federal courts, except in the particulars already mentioned—the right of certain parties to remove causes from the State to the federal courts, and the right of appeal from the State courts to the United States Supreme Court when a right claimed under the Constitution or laws of the United States has been denied. And the jurisdiction of the State courts is universal, except in the limited class of cases already referred to, over which that of the federal courts is exclusive.

In all courts in the United States, whether federal or State (except the State courts of Louisiana), the common law of England is administered, so far as it is applicable to existing institutions, and consistent with the Constitutions of the United States and of the several States, and modified by the provisions of the acts of Congress and of the State legislatures, within the sphere of their respective authority. In Louisiana alone the civil law prevails, a tradition of its Spanish and French history. The common law as it existed at the time the Constitution was formed was adopted by the States, or has been assumed by their courts and legislatures. The federal courts, however, have no common law criminal jurisdiction, and in civil cases administer the law prevailing in the States to which transactions before them are subject.

But whatever the original excellence of the Constitution as a written document, the system of government that has arisen upon its foundations is far less a creation than a growth. This is true of all governments and all systems of law, administrative or judicial, and especially of those found among English-speaking people. It has been a growth not away from nor outside of the provisions of the fundamental law, but their natural result. It is in the capacity for such an expansion

that the highest excellence of the Constitution lies. It became what it is through the construction and application that were given to its provisions. The wisdom that framed it would have been thrown away but for an equal wisdom to adapt the framework to its use. It was as fortunate in one as in the other, for again, in this critical period, the man and the time appeared together.

John Marshall, of Virginia, was appointed chief-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1801, and remained in that office until he died in 1835. His predecessors had held the place for only very brief periods, and but few questions under the Constitution had arisen for their decision. The field opened to Marshall and his associates on the bench, in the construction and adaptation of that instrument, was, therefore, nearly untrodden. In the thirty-five years during which he presided, the Constitution, in its most important features, and in respect to its controlling principles and rules of construction, took permanent shape.

It was said of Marshall by William Pinkney that "he was born to be the chief-justice of whatever country his lot might happen to be cast in." In temper judicial, in character dignified and blameless, in perception unerring, in reasoning luminous, in the principles of law a master, his judgments, sustained by an invincible logic, and expressed with a nervous simplicity that left no word to be misunderstood, approached the nature of demonstration. Imbued with the spirit of all precedent, he rarely cited any; rich in the learning of jurisprudence, he used it to illustrate principles, not to obscure them. Englishmen, less familiar with American history than with the long line of illustrious names that have adorned the judgment-seat of their country, may be surprised to be told that John Marshall, in the qualifications of a great magistrate, as well as in the magnitude and dignity of his judicial work, was the peer of the best among them all.

His associates on the bench were also men of a high order. Three of them had been members of the convention that adopted the Constitution; another, for a considerable part of the time, was Judge Story, one of the most learned of American lawyers. But it stands upon their testimony that, in constitutional law, Marshall was the master-spirit. Only once while he was on the bench was he overruled upon a question of that sort, and then by a bare majority of his associates. And it is now plain to be seen that in that instance the strength of the argument was on his side.

The problems presented to the Supreme Court were altogether new in a tribunal of law. Courts are usually concerned with the administration of individual justice. They are not called upon to settle principles of government, to adjust the relations of States, or to set bounds to the exertion of political authority. The proceedings of courts sitting under the common law had been previously based upon a system of government they had little share in forming, and upon the will of Parliament as the supreme law and the final arbiter of the Constitution. There were, therefore, no precedents by which this court could be guided; they had to make precedents, not to follow them. The intent and scope of the Constitution had to be deduced by general principles of construction, in view of its great purposes and far-reaching consequences.

The questions were not only novel, but difficult. Many of them had given rise to great difference of opinion among lawyers, judges, and statesmen, and the court was not always able to reach a unanimous conclusion in deciding them. This paper would extend into a treatise were it attempted to review, or even to state, the series of decisions, in which one doubt after another, arising upon the Constitution, was settled and disposed of. Questions affecting and determining the powers of the federal government, and of its various departments, the authority of the State governments, and their relation to that of the nation, the extent and quality of the protection afforded by the Constitution to personal and political rights, the limits of the judicial jurisdiction, and many others of minor significance in comparison, but still most material, found a solution in these judgments of the Supreme Court, that has remained, and will remain, the permanent and undisputed law of the land. And thus was infused into the Constitution the breath of life.

The effect of these decisions upon public

sentiment, as from time to time they took place, was striking and conclusive. However warmly the subjects had been debated, however great had been the diversity of opinion, although in some instances the controversies had assumed a political character, and had entered into the warfare of parties, the judgments of the court, when they came to be pronounced, always deliberate, passionless, unpartisan, and just, commanded complete and immediate confidence. It was generally seen that they were right; it was always felt that they must be respected.

Time, the supreme test of the value of human exertion, has demonstrated the excellence of this early and striking chapter of judicial history. What was doubtful in the outset is now made clear by the light of experience. No competent tribunal could at the present day be induced to abandon or change the principles of constitutional jurisprudence that were established in that first half-century, if they were now all open to be reconsidered.

Looking back upon these discussions with the aid of what has since taken place, it is easy to see how different might have been the result, in the hands of a tribunal less wise and far-sighted. It was the formative period of the Constitution, in which it was determined whether it should perish, or whether it should endure. If its administration had commenced upon narrower or less sagacious principles of interpretation, its history would have been brief. Next to the years of the Revolution, this was the most critical time in the life of the young republic, and perhaps even more critical than they were. Had the Revolution been defeated, another would have succeeded; but had this effort at union failed, as its predecessor did, a third would hardly have been attempted. A better or more hopeful Constitution could not have been constructed. America would probably have been divided into as many states as Europe; under what forms of government, and with what subsequent history, is not to be conjectured.

It is by no means to be inferred from these observations that it is meant to be implied that the construction of the Constitution was terminated by Marshall's court. Its great leading principles were then principally determined, and the lines on which its subsequent administration proceeded were in a large measure laid down. In a field so novel everything depended on the beginning. But so long as the Constitution remains the supreme law its construction will not terminate. The time will never arrive, while the Constitution lasts, in which the court will cease to be occupied in ascertaining the application of its provisions to new cases and new subjects, in the ever-changing emergencies of human affairs. Many most important and interesting questions have arisen under it, and have been decided, from time to time, and through all the time since Marshall's day. The Civil War, especially, was fruitful of controversies involving constitutional discussion, on points of great consequence, which no previous occasion had brought into consideration. During the very last term completed by the court four or five cases were determined which turned upon constitutional questions.

In dealing with this delicate subject the court expresses no *obiter* opinions. It will never decide such a question under any circumstances, unless it is absolutely necessary to a determination of the case before it. The unconstitutionality of the act or proceeding in dispute must clearly appear, or it will not be held void; a doubt, however grave, is not enough. It must be shown to infringe some express provision of the Constitution, not merely its general spirit. And when only a part of an act is found to be an infringement, the remainder will be valid. A decision once reached, even though by a divided court, will not be departed from. In only one instance in the history of the court has the decision of a constitutional question been reconsidered and a different result arrived at. And that was upon a rehearing of the same case in which the former judgment was given, the court being on both arguments divided in opinion. It is another rule in respect to these cases that they will never be heard without the presence of all the members of the court. And the judgment is always announced in a written opinion, which is placed upon record, and reported under the supervision of the court.

So much has been said on the subject

of judicial construction that it should be further pointed out that its application to the Constitution is not universal. The Supreme Court has no jurisdiction to decide questions of that sort, except when they arise in actions at law or in equity which come before it in actual litigation. Nor will it ever allow fictitious or collusive cases to be made up for that purpose. It is only, therefore, when the act or the legislation which is claimed to be in contravention of the Constitution reaches and actually affects some individual or corporate right, capable of being vindicated in a court of justice, that the question can come before the Supreme Court for consideration. Legislative or executive proceedings which are in their nature political, which, however they may affect the general welfare and the public interest, do not come in contact with personal rights, or reach one individual in the community more than another, cannot be the subject of litigation. In respect to such subjects the action of the executive or legislative departments within their respective spheres is final, and the judicial power has nothing to do with it but to accept the result. Such are questions of the existence of war or peace, the *de facto* government of a foreign country, or the extent of its jurisdiction, the authority of ambassadors or ministers from other countries, the admission or division of States, and others of the same general character. Many topics of this sort, involving grave constitutional inquiries, have been discussed and dealt with in Congress upon memorable occasions. The public policy of the government has been thus directed and controlled. It has been with the relation of the States and their citizens to the federal government under the Constitution that the Supreme Court has been chiefly concerned.

Surplus, DISTRIBUTION OF THE. In 1833–36 there was a large accumulation of money in the United States treasury, the bulk of which was the accumulation of proceeds of land sales during the great land speculation. Henry Clay introduced a bill to distribute the proceeds of the sales of the public lands, which in 1835 amounted to $21,000,000. His bill passed the Senate, but was laid on the table in the House. It being evident that Congress would not sanction a distribution of these proceeds under the proposition already submitted, a new plan was devised. At the session of 1834–35 an act was passed to regulate the public deposits in the State banks. Immediately following new bills were introduced into both branches of Congress; the one in the Senate was so amended as to provide for the distribution of the surplus revenue among the States. In order to avoid the constitutional objections to such a distribution which had been raised, particularly by Mr. Calhoun, this bill was made to provide that the money should be deposited with, instead of distributed among, the several States; and that if the money should at any time be wanted by the national government, it was to be returned at the call of Congress.

This bill was passed in June, 1836, and especially provided that all the money in the United States treasury on Jan. 1, 1837, excepting $5,000,000, should be deposited with the States, in proportion to their respective representatives in each House of Congress, in four quarterly instalments, beginning in January. The Secretary of the Treasury was to receive for this money certificates of deposit, which, in case the wants of the treasury should require it, might, in whole or in part, be sold by the Secretary; the sales to be ratable in just proportion among all the States, and the certificates when sold to bear an interest of 5 per cent., payable half-yearly, and redeemable at the pleasure of the State. Although the money was thus made returnable when wanted, the advocates of the measure presumed that it would never be called for. In 1836 the surplus, which had accumulated from customs and land sales, exceeded $40,000,000, of which only about $28,000,000 were actually divided, Congress having found it necessary in consequence of unexpected wants of the government to suspend the fourth instalment. No part of the money has yet been called for. The bill was signed by the President with great reluctance.

Surratt, JOHN H., alleged conspirator, son of Mrs. Mary E. Surratt, who was hanged for complicity in the assassination of President Lincoln. After the fatal shot was fired, April 14, 1865, Surratt escaped to Canada and thence to

England; travelled over Europe; and finally joined the Papal Zouaves. Later he deserted and went to Egypt, where he was apprehended in 1867 and taken back to Washington. His trial for conspiracy occupied two months, and ended in a disagreement of the jury.

Susquehanna Settlers. The charter of James I., in 1620, to the Plymouth Company, covered the territory extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific and lying between lat. 40° and 46° N. Connecticut purchased a part of this territory of the Plymouth Company in 1631, with the boundary the same on the west and lat. 41° on the south. This sale was confirmed by Charles II. in 1662. The grant of Charles II. to Penn extended to lat. 42° N. Thus the Connecticut grant overlapped that of Pennsylvania one degree. In 1753 an association called the "Susquehanna Company" was formed, and, with the consent of the Connecticut Assembly, applied to the crown for leave to plant a new colony west of the Delaware. It was granted, and the company sent agents to the convention at Albany in 1754, who succeeded in obtaining from representatives of the Six Nations the cession of a tract of land on the eastern branch of the Susquehanna River—the beautiful valley of Wyoming. The proprietaries of Pennsylvania claimed that this land was within the limits of their charter. Prior occupancy by the Dutch and the settlement of boundaries had created an exception in favor of New York and New Jersey; but all the country west of the Delaware within the same parallel of latitude with Connecticut was still claimed by that colony as a part of its domain. The French and Indian War prevented any attempt at settlement until August, 1762, when 105 settlers came from Connecticut into the Wyoming Valley, but, owing to the lateness of the season, soon returned. Coming back early in May, 1763, they settled in the same valley. Proclamations were issued by Pennsylvania and writs of ejectment were placed in the hands of the sheriff of Northampton county. In the autumn of 1763 a war-party of the Six Nations descended the Susquehanna and murdered Teedyuscung, the beloved old chief of the Delawares, and charged the crime upon the Connecticut settlers. The Delawares believed the tale, and at noon on Oct. 14 they attacked and massacred thirty of the settlers in the fields. Men, women, and children fled to the mountains, from which they saw their homes plundered and burned and their cattle taken away. They made their way back to Connecticut. The settlement was broken up. Meanwhile Pennsylvania took possession of the Wyoming Valley and built a fortified trading-house there. Another Connecticut association, called the "Delaware Company," had begun a settlement on the Delaware River (1767). In 1769 forty pioneers of the Susquehanna Company went there to assert their rights, and civil war prevailed there for some time (see PENNYMITE AND YANKEE WAR). In 1771 the Assembly of Connecticut proposed to make an effort to adjust all the difficulties, but the governor of Pennsylvania refused to enter into any negotiation. The Connecticut Assembly then made out a case and sent it to England for adjudication. It was submitted to the ablest lawyers in the realm, and was decided in favor of the Susquehanna Company. The decision was unheeded by Governor Penn. The Connecticut settlers, reinforced from time to time, persisted, and organized an independent government by town-meetings, as in Connecticut. In 1774 they united seven towns into one, Westmoreland, and attached it to Litchfield county, Conn. This desultory strife continued with loss of life and much suffering until the struggle was suspended by the war of the Revolution. These were the settlers that were killed and scattered in the fearful Wyoming massacre by the Tories and Indians in 1778. In 1779 and 1780 they again returned and occupied the valley. In the meanwhile the titles of the Penns had passed to the State, and although the struggle was kept up after the Revolution, negotiations were more direct. Pennsylvania finally confirmed the title of the Connecticut settlers on their payment of a nominal sum for their land, and compensated the Pennsylvania claimants with other lands and with money. The *Examination of the Connecticut Claim to Lands in Pennsylvania*, written by William Smith, was published in Philadelphia in 1774, and *A Plea in*

Vindication of the Connecticut Title to the Contested Lands West of the Province of New York, written by Benjamin Trumbull, was published in New Haven in the same year. The Continental Congress, to whom the dispute was referred, decided in favor of Pennsylvania in 1781. The cession of her western lands by Connecticut to the general government of the United States ended all controversy. See CONNECTICUT; PENNYMITE AND YANKEE WAR.

Sutherland, CHARLES, surgeon; born in Philadelphia, Pa., May 29, 1829; appointed assistant surgeon in the United States army in 1852; surgeon-general in 1890. He died in Washington, D. C., May 11, 1895.

Sutro, ADOLPH HEINRICH JOSEPH, mining engineer; born in Aix-la-Chapelle, Prussia, April 29, 1830; came to the United States in 1850; and later went to California, where he was in business for ten years; visited Nevada in 1860; learned of the unfavorable condition of the mines; and planned the great Sutro tunnel, through the heart of the mountain where lay the Comstock lode. He interested capitalists in the project; obtained a charter from the Nevada legislature, Feb. 4, 1865; and the authorization of Congress, July 25, 1866. The tunnel was begun Oct. 19, 1869; before the close of 1871 four vertical shafts had been opened along its line, one of which was 552 feet deep; and it was completed at a cost of nearly $4,000,000. The main tunnel is 1,650 feet from the surface, 20,000 feet long, 12 feet wide, and 10 feet high. Mr. Sutro sold his interest in the tunnel and went to San Francisco, where he invested in real estate, and became one of the richest men on the Pacific coast. He was elected mayor of San Francisco in 1894. He gave to the public a beautiful park in 1880; built an aquarium and salt-water bath; gave statues and fountains to the city; and bequeathed $10,000 to Vassar College. His library of more than 200,000 volumes and documents was very rich in early Americana, especially in subjects relating to the history of the Pacific coast. He died in San Francisco, Cal., July 8, 1898.

Sutro, THEODORE, lawyer; born in Aachen, Germany, March 14, 1845, came to the United States in 1850; graduated at Harvard University in 1871; and Columbia College Law School in 1874; was connected with the Sutro Tunnel Company; commissioner of taxes in New York City in 1895–98. He has written much on taxation, corporation law, mining, etc.

Sutter, JOHN AUGUSTUS, pioneer; born in Kandern, Baden, Feb. 15, 1803; graduated at the military academy at Berne in 1823, and entered the "Swiss Guard" as lieutenant. He served in the Spanish campaign of 1823–24, and remained in the Swiss army until 1834, when he emigrated to the United States, settled in Missouri, and became a naturalized citizen. There he engaged in a thriving cattle-trade with New Mexico by the old Santa Fé trail. Speaking French, German, Spanish, and English fluently, he became one of the best known and most popular of frontiersmen. Hearing of the beauty and fertility of the Pacific coast, he set out from Missouri with six men in 1838, and crossed 2,000 miles of a region which had rarely been trodden by civilized men. He went to Oregon, and descended the Columbia River to Vancouver. Thence he proceeded to the Sandwich Islands. There he bought and freighted a ship, and in her proceeded to Sitka, the capital of Alaska, then a Russian possession. The venture was successful, and he sailed to the Bay of San Francisco in July, 1839. On the banks of the Sacramento River, Cal., he established himself, gathered a little colony there, put various industries in motion, and accumulated an immense fortune.

Within two years after his arrival in California he possessed 1,000 horses, 2,500 horned cattle, and 1,000 sheep; and he became a formidable rival of the Hudson Bay Company as a trader in furs with the Indians. Sutter's Fort became a hospitable resort of explorers on the Western coasts, and Sutter rendered valuable assistance to those in distress. Frémont experienced his kindness, and at the close of the war with Mexico Sutter was the leading man in wealth and influence in California. He had experienced some trouble with the Mexican authorities, who tried to drive him out of the country. In the midst of his annoyances Frémont arrived with troops, hoisted the American flag over Sutter's Fort, and so took the

first step towards making California a State of the Union. It is agreed that to no man was the United States more indebted for the conquest of California than to Captain Sutter. On Jan. 19, 1848, gold was first discovered in California on his estate. This discovery was a great misfortune to Captain Sutter. As a consequence of that discovery he lost his land grant of thousands of acres made by Mexican governors as a reward for military services. He was stripped of his magnificent estate and reduced to poverty. In 1864 the legislature of California granted him a pension of $3,000 a year, when he and his wife visited Europe. The latter years of his life were spent at Litiz, Lancaster co., Pa. He anxiously but unsuccessfully importuned Congress to grant him some indemnity for his losses. He died in Washington, D. C., June 17, 1880.

Swaanendael Colony. In anticipation of the establishment of patroonships (see PATROONS), a partnership was formed by directors of the Dutch West India Company for making settlements on the Delaware River. Godyn, Bloemart, Van Rensselaer, and others were the partners. They sent (Dec. 16, 1630) a ship and yacht, under the command of Pieter Heyes, with some colonists, and in the spring purchases of land were made from the Indians on both shores of Delaware Bay. Near the site of the present town of Lewes, Del., a colony was planted, and the spot was called Swaanendael. In 1632 this little colony was destroyed by the Indians. Swaanendael was sold to the West India Company in 1633.

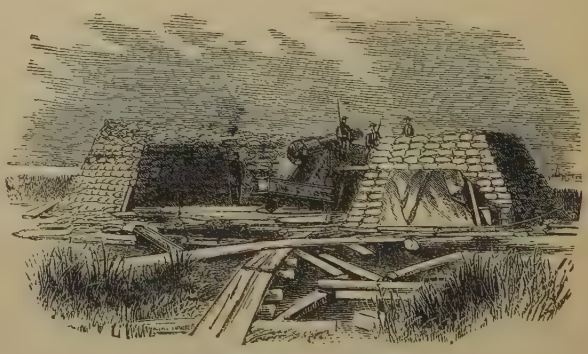
Swain, DAVID GASKILL, military officer; born in Salem, O., Dec. 22, 1834; educated at Salem Academy; admitted to the bar and began practice in Salem in 1858. When the Civil War broke out he entered the National army, and was commissioned second lieutenant. He fought in the battles of Shiloh, Murfreesboro, and Perryville, and was brevetted major, lieutenant-colonel, and colonel of volunteers, and major and lieutenant-colonel United States army for distinguished services. In 1884 he was court-martialled and suspended for twelve years. In 1894 the President remitted the remainder of his suspension and he was retired. He died in Washington, D. C., Aug. 17, 1897.

Swain, DAVID LOWRY, lawyer; born in Asheville, N. C., Jan. 4, 1801; governor of his State in 1832–35, and president of the University of North Carolina in 1835–68. He was the author of *The British Invasion of North Carolina in 1776* in the *Revolutionary History of North Carolina.* He died in Chapel Hill, N. C., Sept. 3, 1868.

Swain, JAMES BARRETT, journalist; born in New York City, July 30, 1820; secretary to Henry Clay in 1838–39; editor of the New York *Tribune* in 1850, and of the New York *Times* in 1851–52; served in the National army during the Civil War. His publications include *Life and Speeches of Henry Clay; Notes to the Speeches of Henry Clay;* and *Military History of the State of New York.* He died in Sing Sing, N. Y., May 27, 1895.

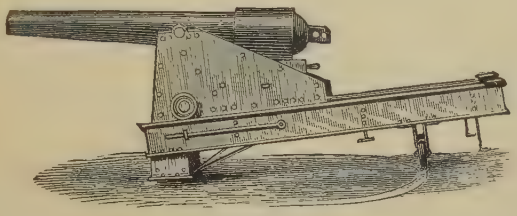
Swallow, SILAS C., Prohibitionist; born in Plains, Pa., March 5, 1839; was educated at Wyoming Seminary, Kingston, Pa.; became a clergyman; was editor of the *Pennsylvania Methodist,* and superintendent of the Methodist Book rooms; candidate for governor on the Prohibiton ticket in 1898 and 1902, and for President of the United States in 1904.

Swamp-angel, THE. One of the most astonishing feats of military engineering was the construction of a redoubt in a morass of deep black mud between Morris and James islands, near Charleston, S. C.,



THE SWAMP-ANGEL BATTERY.

in 1863. The mud was about 16 feet in depth, overgrown with reeds and rank winding streams. Upon a platform of marsh-grass and traversed by sluggish, heavy timbers the redoubt was planted. It was composed wholly of bags of sand. Heavy piles were driven under the gun-platform entirely through the mud into the solid earth, and upon it a 200-pounder rifled Parrott gun was mounted, thoroughly protected by a parapet. The gun was named the "Swamp-angel," and fired its heavy shot into Charleston, 5 miles distant. To do this it had to be fired at an elevation of 35°. One of its shots went into St. Michael's Church. The gun finally burst.



A PARROTT GUN.

Swamp Fight. One of the fierce struggles in King Philip's War. PHILIP (*q. v.*) and his allies — the Narragansets — had taken refuge in a fort which they had built in a pine and cedar swamp 3 or 4 miles west of South Kingston, R. I., for the protection of their winter store of food and their women and children. This fort was made more accessible by the cold that had frozen the surface of the morass. It was on rising ground in the morass —a sort of island of 3 or 4 acres— fortified by a palisade and surrounded by a close hedge a rod thick. There was but one narrow entrance to the fort, defended by a tree thrown across it, with a block-house of logs in the front and another on the flank. The colonial soldiers were enabled to approach the fort on the frozen surface of the morass. As they approached they were met by a galling fire from the Indians, and many fell. The troops pressed on, forced the entrance, and engaged in a deadly struggle. The battle lasted two hours, when the colonists were victorious. The wigwams were set on fire and the events of the Pequod massacre were repeated. The stores were consumed, with old men, women, and children. Of the colonists, six were captured and 230 killed and wounded. In the midst of a snow-storm the colonists abandoned the scene that night (Dec. 19, 1675) and marched 15 miles. The troops engaged in the battle were composed of six companies of foot and one of cavalry from Massachusetts, under Major Appleton; two companies from Plymouth, commanded by Major Bradford; and 300 white men and 150 Mohegan and Pequod Indians, in five companies, from Connecticut, under Major Treat. The whole were commanded by Josiah Winslow, son of Edward Winslow, of Plymouth.

Swamp Lands. Granted to the States by Congress in 1849. Most of the lands were regranted by the States to railroad companies.

Swan, JAMES, military officer; born in Fifeshire, Scotland, in 1754; settled in Boston, Mass., early in life, and supported the colonists against England; was one of the "Boston Tea-party," and aide-de-camp to Gen. Joseph Warren at Bunker Hill; was appointed captain in the artillery regiment of Ebenezer Craft, and took an active part in the Revolution. He was the author of *Causes which are Opposed to the Progress of Commerce between France and the United States of America; Dissuasion from the Slave-trade; On the Fisheries; Fisheries of Massachusetts;* and *Address on Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce.* He died in Paris, France, March 18, 1831.

Swank, JAMES MOORE, historian; born in Westmoreland county, Pa., July 12, 1832; received an academic education; was secretary of the American Iron and Steel Association in 1873–85; then became general manager. His publications include *History of the Manufacture of Iron in All Ages; History of the Department of Agriculture; Iron Making and Coal Mining in Pennsylvania,* etc. His annual reports on the iron and steel industries of the United States are widely recognized as a high authority.

Swatane or Shikellimy, Oneida Indian chief; represented the Five Nations in their affairs with Pennsylvania in 1728, and was present at nearly every treaty

made between the whites and Indians. Shortly before his death he was baptized by Moravian missionaries. He died in Shamokin, Pa., Dec. 17, 1748.

Swayne, NOAH HAYNES, jurist; born in Culpeper county, Va., Dec. 7, 1804; admitted to the bar in 1823; and began practice in Coshocton, O., in 1825; elected to the Ohio legislature in 1829; United States district attorney for Ohio in 1831–41. He became widely known in 1853 through his connection with the trial to secure insurance for the owners of the steamboat *Martha Washington*, which was destroyed by fire. He was a justice of the United States Supreme Court in 1862–81. He died in New York City, June 8, 1884.

Swayne, WAGER, military officer; born in Columbus, O., Nov. 10, 1834; son of Judge Noah H. Swayne; graduated at Yale College in 1856; became a lawyer; and was a useful officer in the Civil War (1861–65), entering the army as major serving at the battles of Iuka and Corinth and in the Atlanta campaign, losing a leg at Salkahatchie. In June, 1865, he was promoted major-general of volunteers; commissioned colonel of the 45th Infantry in 1866; retired in 1870. He died in New York, Dec. 18, 1902.

Sweden, New. See NEW SWEDEN.

Swedenborgians. See NEW JERUSALEM, CHURCH OF THE.

Sweeny, THOMAS WILLIAM, military officer; born in Cork, Ireland, Dec. 25, 1820; served in the war against Mexico, in which he lost an arm. In May, 1861, he was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers, and was distinguished at Wilson's Creek, where he was severely wounded. In January, 1862, he was colonel of the 52d Illinois Volunteers, and was engaged in the battles at Fort Donelson, Shiloh, Corinth, and Iuka Springs. He became brigadier-general again late in 1862, and in the Atlanta campaign commanded a division, distinguishing himself in several of the battles. The city of New York gave him a silver medal for his services in the war with Mexico, and the city of Brooklyn gave him one for his services in the Civil War. In May, 1870, he was retired with the rank of brigadier-general, United States army. He died in Astoria, N. Y., April 10, 1892.

Sweet, BENJAMIN JEFFREY, military officer; born in Kirkland, N. Y., April 24, 1832; settled with his father in Stockbridge, Wis., in 1848; elected a member of the Wisconsin legislature just prior to the Civil War, but at the outbreak of hostilities was made major of the 6th Wisconsin Regiment. Later he became colonel of the 21st and 22d Wisconsin regiments, which he had recruited. During the battle of Perryville he lost 300 in killed and wounded, being himself among the latter. In May, 1864, he was placed in command of Camp Douglas, Chicago, which contained about 10,000 Confederate prisoners. Through his watchfulness he discovered and prevented a plot to arm these soldiers, who were then to escape and fire the city, which was to be a signal for a general uprising of 500,000 men throughout the West. Sweet had but 796 men, and it was impossible to secure others. He therefore took the unprecedented means of confiding in a Confederate prisoner to shadow the leaders of the plot. The man engaged was John T. Shanks, a Texas Ranger, who knew personally the Confederate leaders. Sweet permitted Shanks to escape from prison and apparently made strenuous efforts to retake him. The man was followed by detectives who were to take his life on the slightest treachery. Shanks, however, attended so well to his work that the leaders of the plot were captured within thirty-six hours. In recognition of this service Sweet was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers. He was United States pension-agent in Chicago in 1869–70; supervisor of internal revenue for Illinois in 1870–72; and was then appointed first deputy commissioner of internal revenue and took up his residence in Washington. He died there, Jan. 1, 1874.

Swett, JOHN, educator; born in Pittsfield, N. H., July 31, 1830; received an academic education; was State superintendent of schools in California in 1863–68; principal of the Girls' High and Normal School in San Francisco in 1876–89; and superintendent of the public schools of San Francisco in 1891–94. He is the author of *History of the Public School System of California; American Public Schools; Biennial Reports on Public Instruction of California in 1864–65*, etc.

Swett, SAMUEL, author; born in Newburyport, Mass., June 9, 1782; graduated at Harvard College in 1800; was admitted to the bar, but became a merchant; served in the War of 1812. He was the author of *Sketch of Bunker Hill Battle; Sketches of a Few Distinguished Men of Newburyport; Who was the Commander at Bunker Hill? with Remarks on Frothingham's History of the Battle; Defence of Colonel Pickering against Bancroft's History; Original Planning and Construction of Bunker Hill Monument,* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., Oct. 28, 1866.

Swift, JOSEPH GARDNER, military engineer; born in Nantucket, Mass., Dec. 31, 1783; was the first graduate of the Military Academy at West Point as lieutenant of engineers, Oct. 12, 1802; rose from grade to grade until he was commissioned colonel and principal engineer of the army, July 31, 1812. He planned the chief defence of New York Harbor in 1812, and

JOSEPH GARDNER SWIFT.

was chief engineer on the Northern frontier in 1813. In February, 1814, he was brevetted brigadier-general for meritorious services, and in 1816 was made superintendent of the Military Academy. He left the army in 1818, and was appointed surveyor of the port of New York the same year. General Swift entered the service of the United States as civil engineer, and from 1829 to 1845 superintended harbor improvements on the lakes. Meanwhile (1830–31) he constructed the railroad from New Orleans to Lake Pontchartrain over an unfathomable swamp, and in 1839 was chief engineer in the construction of the Harlem Railroad. President Harrison sent him on an embassy of peace to Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia in 1841. He died in Geneva, N. Y., July 23, 1865.

Swing, DAVID, clergyman; born in Cincinnati, O., Aug. 23, 1830; graduated at Miami University in 1852; later studied theology; was Professor of Languages in Miami University in 1853–65; pastor of the Fourth Presbyterian Church in Chicago in 1865–71, his church being one of the buildings destroyed in the great fire. He preached in Standard Hall and McVicker's Theatre until a new building was erected in 1874. His sermons, essays, and other publications had a large circulation. His doctrines were regarded by many as heterodox, and in 1874 he was brought to trial before the Chicago Presbytery on a charge of heresy, with twenty-eight specifications, preferred by Prof. Francis L. Patton. The trial lasted several weeks, and resulted in his acquittal. Professor Swing then withdrew from the Presbyterian Church and preached to the greater part of his old congregation in Central Music Hall till his death, Oct. 3, 1894.

Swinton, JOHN, journalist; born in Salton, Haddingtonshire, Scotland, Dec. 12, 1830; came to the United States with his parents, and learned the printer's trade in New York City. He took an active part in the free-State contest in Kansas; returned to New York City in 1857. He was connected with the New York *Times* in 1860–70, the New York *Sun* in 1875–97; and published in 1885–87 *John Swinton's Paper,* devoted to the discussion of social and industrial questions. He was the author of *The Chinese-American Question; Oration on John*

Brown, etc. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Dec. 15, 1901.

Swinton, WILLIAM, author; born in Salton, Scotland, April 23, 1833; studied at Amherst College; was on the editorial staff of the New York *Times* for several years, and during most of the Civil War was war correspondent for that paper; was Professor of Belles-Lettres in the University of California in 1869–74. His publications include *The Times's Review of McClellan: His Military Career Reviewed and Exposed; Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac: a Critical History of Operations in Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania; The Twelve Decisive Battles of the War: a History of the Eastern and Western Campaigns in Relation to the Actions that Decided their Issue;* and *History of the New York 7th Regiment During the War of the Rebellion.* He died in New York City, Oct. 24, 1892.

Swisshelm, JANE GREY, journalist; born near Pittsburg, Pa., Sept. 6, 1815; was among the earliest advocates of woman's rights, and an ardent opponent of slavery. During the Civil War she served as nurse in the National army. She was a frequent contributor to periodicals; and established the *St. Cloud Democrat* and the *Saturday Visitor.* She died in Swissdale, Pa., July 22, 1884.

Swords, ROBERT SMITH, author; born in New York City, July 12, 1816; graduated at Columbia College in 1834; later was admitted to the bar, and practised for ten years. He removed to New Jersey in 1849 and was magistrate for Union township for twelve years. He served in the Civil War as lieutenant-colonel of the 13th New Jersey Volunteers, being present in the engagements at Antietam and South Mountain; resigned in 1863; and settled in Newark, N. J. He was for many years secretary of the board of trade of Newark; corresponding secretary of the New Jersey State Agricultural Society, and treasurer of the New Jersey Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, of the board of proprietors of east New Jersey, and from 1867 of the New Jersey Historical Society. He contributed *Memoir of the Life and Character of John Rutherford;* and *The Bones of Columbus* to the *Proceedings* of the New Jersey Historical Society. He died in Newark, N. J., Jan. 15, 1881.

Sykes, GEORGE, military officer; born in Dover, Del., Oct. 9, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1842; served in the war with Mexico; and was brevetted captain for gallant services at Cerro Gordo. He became assistant commissary of Twiggs's division of the army in Mexico, and was promoted to captain in 1855. In May, 1861, he was commissioned major, United States army; in September was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and in 1862 was promoted to major-general. He commanded a division of the 5th Corps of the Army of the Potomac under Generals Fitz-John Porter and Butterfield, and took a conspicuous part in nearly all the battles fought by that army. In June, 1863, he was placed in command of the 5th Corps, with which he fought at Gettysburg, and afterwards was active in Virginia. General Sykes was brevetted major-general, United States army, for services in the war, and was afterwards colonel of the 20th Infantry. He died in Brownsville, Tex., Feb. 9, 1880.

Sylvania, PROPOSED STATE OF, under Jefferson's plan for the creation of new States from what was known in 1784 as the Northwest Territory. The third tier of projected new States spread from the forty-fifth parallel of latitude to the Lake of the Woods; was covered with dense forests of pine, hickory, and oak; and was designated as Sylvania. Immediately beneath this tract was a narrow strip stretching from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi. This was called Michigania, and a part of it now forms the centre of Wisconsin. See SARATOGA, PROPOSED STATE OF; UNITED STATES: CEDED LANDS.

Sylvester, NATHANIEL BARTLETT, author; born in Denmark, N. Y., Feb. 22, 1825; was admitted to the bar in Oswego, N. Y., in 1852; engaged in journalism for several years. His publications include *Historical Sketches of Northern New York, and the Adirondack Wilderness; History of Saratoga County, N. Y.; History of Rensselaer County, N. Y.; History of the Connecticut Valley in Massachusetts; History of Ulster County, N. Y.; Indian Legends of Saratoga and the Upper Hudson Valley;* and *Historical Nar-*

ratives of the Upper Hudson, Lake George, and Lake Champlain. He died in 1894.

Symmes, JOHN CLEVES, jurist; born on Long Island, N. Y., July 21, 1742; married a daughter of Gov. William Livingston, of New Jersey. In 1785–86 he was a member of the Continental Congress; was judge of the Supreme Court of New Jersey, and chief-justice. Making a purchase of a vast tract of land between the Great and Little Miami rivers, Ohio, he settled there towards the close of the eighteenth century. He died in Cincinnati, Feb. 26, 1814. His daughter Anna was the wife of President William Henry Harrison. His nephew, JOHN CLEVES, born in New Jersey in 1780, was a soldier in the War of 1812, but is known as the author of the theory that the earth is hollow, habitable within, open at the poles for the admission of light, and containing within it half a dozen concentric hollow spheres, also open at their poles. He petitioned Congress to fit out an expedition to test his theory. It was first promulgated in 1818. He died in Hamilton, O., May 28, 1829; and over his grave is a short column, surmounted by a globe showing open poles.

SYMMES'S MONUMENT.

Symmes's Purchase. Soon after the passage of the ORDINANCE OF 1787 (*q. v.*) for the establishment of a government northwest of the Ohio, lands in that region which had been surveyed in anticipation of this action of Congress were sold. An association called the OHIO COMPANY (*q. v.*) bought 5,000,000 acres between the Muskingum and Scioto rivers, fronting on the Ohio; and John Cleves Symmes purchased 2,000,000 in the rich and beautiful region on the Ohio between the Great and Little Miami rivers, including the site of Cincinnati.

Sympathetic Strikes. See STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

Sypher, JOSIAH RHINEHART, lawyer; born in Liverpool, Pa., April 12, 1832; graduated at Union College in 1858; admitted to the bar in 1862; served as war correspondent for the New York *Tribune* during the Civil War. After the war he began the practice of law in Philadelphia, Pa. His publications include *Pennsylvania Reserve Corps; History of Pennsylvania; History of New Jersey,* etc.

System of Slavery, THE. See BEECHER, HENRY WARD.

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